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## ABSTRACT

Twelve of the papers of the 30 presented at this symposium are included in this publication: (1) "Toward a Higher State of Being" (Daniel L. Dustin); (2) "Parklands and Wilderness: An International Perspective" (Larry Beck); (3) "Selection Criteria for Outdoor Recreation Equipment" (John Cedarquist); (4) "Risk Management in Parks and Recreation: Need for Computerized Information System" (Steve Gray); (5) "Managing Urban Parks; A Study of Park Fees, Personnel, Services and Budgets" (Craig W. Kelsey); (6) "Seeking Simplicity--Simple Living and a Leisure Perspective" (Andrea Phillips); (7) "Avalanches and Skitourers: The Utah Avalanche Forecast Center 1988 User Survey" (David Ream); (8) "Recreation Center Fees and Charges: A Statewide Study" (Craig W. Kelsey); (9) "Transition Planning in Therapeutic Recreation/Special Recreation" (S. Harold Smith); (10) "The Rescue Doctrine: A New Toot on an Old Horn" (Janna S. Rankin); (11) "Utah's Community Education Long Range Planning Project" (Burton Olsen and Larry Horyna); and (12) "Analysis of Utah State Law 11-2-7, 'The Recreation Mill Levy'" (Benjamin Allen and Burton Olsen). (JD)

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# 9TH ANNUAL INTERMOUNTAIN LEISURE RESOURCES SYMPOSIUM

*"I felt my spirits rise when I had got off the road into the open fields, and the sky had a new appearance. I stepped along more buoyantly. There was a warm sunset over the wooded valleys, a yellowish tinge on the pines. Reddish dun-colored clouds like dusky flames stood over it. And then streaks of blue sky were seen here and there. The life, the joy, that is in blue sky after a storm! There is no account of the blue sky in history. Before I walked in the ruts of travel; now I adventured . . .*

*I learned this, at least, by my experiment; that if one advances confidently in the direction of his dreams, and endeavors to live the life which he has imagined, he will meet with a success unexpected in common hours. In proportion as he simplifies his life, the laws of the universe will appear less complex, and solitude will not be solitude, nor poverty poverty, nor weakness weakness. If you have built castles in the air, your work need not be lost; that is where they should be . . . Now put the foundations under them."*

*Henry David Thoreau*



Hosted by: University of Utah

November 17, 1988

Directors: John Crossley and Judy Voelkl

Proceedings Compiled by:

Gary Ellis

SP030718

## Preface

We are pleased to present the proceedings from the 1988 Intermountain Leisure Resources Symposium (IMLRS). Thirty papers were presented in this ninth annual Symposium, addressing a broad range of critical issues, current trends, and emerging perspectives. Twelve of the presenters have chosen to submit papers for inclusion in this document. We are pleased to provide a permanent record of these papers for future reference and recollection.

Sponsorship of the IMLRS is shared by the University of Utah, Brigham Young University, Utah State University, Weber State College, the Utah Recreation and Park Association, and the Utah Therapeutic Recreation Association. Every two years, a different school serves as host for the Symposium. The 1988 Symposium was hosted by the University of Utah, under the co-directorship of Dr. John Crossley and Ms. Judi Voelkl. Significant contributions to the planning and operation of the Symposium were made by the 1988-1989 staff of the University of Utah's Western Laboratory for Leisure Research: Mr. Robert Jones, Ms. Nila Ipson, Mr. Michael Tyler, Ms. Kathy Morris, and Mr. Carlos Ramos. The proceedings were compiled by Dr. Gary Ellis and the cover of the document was produced by Mrs. Verla Hagen and Dr. Patricia Eisenman. We are very appreciative of the contributions of these individuals to the Symposium and to the Proceedings.

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# 9TH INTERMOUNTAIN LEISURE RESOURCES SYMPOSIUM

NOVEMBER 17, 1988

7:45 - 8:30 REGISTRATION & CONTINENTAL BREAKFAST

| ROOMS                | WEST<br>BALLROOM                                                                                                                                                        | EAST<br>BALLROOM                                                                                 | ALUMNI<br>LOUNGE                                                                                 | PARLOR<br>A                                                                                                     | PARLOR<br>B                                                                                                                                                        | PARLOR<br>C                                                                                              | ROOM<br>323                                                                                                             |
|----------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 8:30<br>TO<br>9:20   | The Link Between Clinical<br>Therapeutic Recreation<br>and Community Recreation<br>Where Does Utah Go From<br>Here?<br>TRISH JENSEN<br>GARY EHRINGTON<br>(Municipal/TR) | Save Our Canyons<br>DEAN GALE DICK<br>(Outdoor)                                                  | TASK: Experiential<br>Therapy<br>KARI JENSEN<br>(TR)                                             | Are You Nervous? Learn<br>to Provide Service!<br>TAYLOR ELLIS<br>(Commercial/General)                           |                                                                                                                                                                    | Voluntary Simplicity<br>Simple Living and the<br>Leisure Connection<br>ANDREA PHILLIPS BECK<br>(General) | Developing an Expanded<br>ATV Trail System Res-<br>ponding to a New Public<br>Demand<br>FRANK GROVER<br>(State/Federal) |
| 9:30<br>TO<br>10:20  | Working with People with<br>Aids in Public Facilities<br>and Recreation Programs<br>BEN BARR<br>(General)                                                               | Analysis of Utah State Law<br>11-2-7: The Recreation<br>Mill Levy<br>BURTON OLSON<br>(Municipal) | Creative Approaches for<br>the Therapeutic Utilization<br>of Movement<br>PATRICIA TOOMEY<br>(TR) | Avalanche & Ski Tours<br>The Utah Avalanche<br>Forecast Center's 1988 User<br>Survey<br>DAVID REAM<br>(Outdoor) | Youth Athletic Teams<br>Program Development on a<br>Neighborhood Basis<br>STEVE BAILEY<br>(Municipal)                                                              | Urban Trails: Let's Provide<br>Them While We Can<br>KEN BRUNSON<br>(State/Federal)                       | Wilderness<br>An International<br>Perspective<br>LARRY BECK<br>(Outdoor)                                                |
| 10:30<br>TO<br>11:20 | After the Tax Incentives<br>When Do We Go From<br>Here?<br>DARLE BERLIN<br>JOHN LU<br>BARRY MILLER<br>(General)                                                         | Marketing Trends In<br>Commercial Recreation<br>RICK STROUPE<br>(Commercial)                     | Building Self Esteem in<br>Adolescence<br>SANDRA NUGLEY<br>LAREN FLOYD<br>(TR)                   | Self Directed Leisure<br>Guidance<br>ERNE OLSON<br>(General)                                                    | Utah Recreation Initiative<br>A New Effort to Part-<br>nership and Market Utah's<br>Great Outdoor Recrea-<br>tion Opportunities<br>GARTH HILTON<br>(State/Federal) |                                                                                                          | Selection Criteria for<br>Outdoor Recreation<br>Equipment<br>JOHN CEDERQUIST<br>(Outdoor)                               |

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

11:30  
TO  
1:20

**LUNCHEON**

STUDENT AWARD PRESENTATIONS

KEYNOTE SPEAKER:

**DANIEL DUSTIN, PhD**

San Diego State University

**TOWARD A HIGHER STATE OF BEING**

**SALTAIR  
ROOM**

| ROOMS              | WEST<br>BALLROOM                                                                                               | EAST<br>BALLROOM                                                                                                   | ALUMNI<br>LOUNGE                                                                                                         | PARLOR<br>A                                                                                            | PARLOR<br>B                                                                                              | PARLOR<br>C | ROOM<br>323                                                                                                                             |
|--------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1:30<br>TO<br>2:20 | Crystal Ball Gazing: What's in the Future for Our Society and Profession<br><br>TOM CATHERALL<br><br>(General) | A Report On Utah's Long Range Planning Project in Community Education<br><br>BURTON OLSON<br><br>(Municipal)       | Transition Planning in Therapeutic Recreation<br><br>S. HAROLD SMITH<br><br>(IR)                                         | Perception of Desert Environments and Recreational Impacts<br><br>RICHARD SCHREYER<br><br>(Outdoor)    | Program Planning: Challenges for Sports and Athletic Tournaments<br><br>JOHN CROSMLEY<br><br>(Municipal) |             | The Mount Ogden Trail: A Model for Interagency and Private Cooperation<br><br>GARY D. WILLEN<br><br>KINDY C. CHOINACKY<br><br>(Outdoor) |
| 2:30<br>TO<br>3:20 | Recreation as the 4th R in Education<br><br>GEORGE<br>FENSTERMACHER<br><br>(General)                           | Managing Urban Parks: A Study of Park Fees, Personnel, Services, and Budget<br><br>CRAIG KELSEY<br><br>(Municipal) | Group Dynamics and Activities to Promote Personnel, Services, and Group Cohesiveness<br><br>JANICE W. LARSON<br><br>(IR) | The Rescue Doctrine: The Courts Pour Old Wine Into New Bottles<br><br>JANNA S. RANKIN<br><br>(Outdoor) | URPA<br>STEWARDS<br>MEETING                                                                              |             | How To Market Programs Through Interpretation<br><br>PHIL JOHNSON<br><br>(State/Federal)                                                |

**THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING**

## TOWARD A HIGHER STATE OF BEING

Daniel L. Dustin<sup>1</sup>

Abstract.--What is it that we human beings should be striving for? To what goals or purposes do we owe our allegiance? How can we become even more humane? In this paper I explore these questions in the context of environmental ethics. My intent is to stimulate reflection on the nature of our relationship with all that surrounds us.

---

This is my seventh Intermountain Leisure Symposium. For a variety of reasons I take great delight in this annual event. I cherish the friendships I've made over the years, and I've enjoyed getting to know your different universities. I think I've completed the circuit now; from Brigham Young University to Utah State University to Weber State College to the University of Utah.

I must confess at the outset, though, that there is another dimension to this trip that appeals greatly to me -- the State of Utah itself. Driving up I-15 past St. George and Cedar City into the heartland, I never cease to be struck by the beauty of this place. I've taken side trips to Zion, Bryce Canyon, and Cedar Breaks. Then there is the majesty of the Wasatch Range itself, dusted with each November's snow. I've often thought how blessed you are to be nested here. And I've thought, too, about your associated responsibilities.

So it is that I decided to talk to you today about the ethics of your relationship with this living, breathing home of yours that is Utah. I decided I'd tell you why walking over Utah is better than pedaling is better than motoring is better than - - -. And I decided I'd anchor it all in what science is telling us about the workings of the world.

But, in the words of author Joseph Heller, "something happened". To begin with, someone whose opinion I respect admonished me for eating a hamburger at Burger King. Burger King, she said, gets its hamburger from cattle raised in or about the tropical rain forests of South America, a habitat in jeopardy as a refuge for many species of endangered plants and animals. Didn't I realize that by patronizing Burger King, I was contributing to the demise of those endangered species? (not to mention the ozone

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<sup>1</sup>Professor of Outdoor Recreation Planning and Policy, Department of Recreation, San Diego State University, San Diego, CA 92182-0368.

layer!)

"For heaven's sake," I wanted to say, "lighten up. It was only a hamburger." But I didn't. And the conversation soon turned to my wasteful driving habits, my re-cycling shortcomings, and I don't know what else. Suffice it to say that by day's end, the size of my ego had been reduced appreciably; so much so, in fact, that I could not in good conscience begin putting together a talk about what you ought to embrace as your ethics when my own ethics left so much to be desired. What right did I have to preach what I myself could not seem to practice?

I doubt that anyone likes to have their human frailties brought to light, and I am no exception. But rather than get defensive or try to rationalize my behavior, I decided to face up to it and consider the implications. So what I had intended to be a month of preparation for this talk now turned into a month of introspection, a soul search of sorts. As is my custom, I took apart the conversation of that troubling evening, considering its various aspects in detail, trying to reconstruct the logic of the criticisms leveled against me, trying to determine to what extent I deserved what I got. What I was groping for, you see, was a better understanding of myself. And somewhere in the midst of that inward journey it occurred to me that to the extent I was like other people, perhaps I could put insights about myself to work in service of my original intent for this talk. (It's funny how a fast-approaching deadline clarifies one's thinking). You laugh, but what, after all, is a public ethic or lack thereof other than an individual ethic or lack thereof written large? So here for your consideration, ladies and gentlemen, is the stuff I chewed on.

#### WHAT IT MEANS TO BE HUMAN

Who among us has not suffered through the painful realization that we are never going to be all that we promised ourselves we'd be? Whether out of ignorance, or vanity, or some act of selfishness, who among us has not on more occasions than we care to remember belied what we stand for through our actions? Who among us, then, has not feet of clay?

By the same token, who among us has not on occasion experienced the joy of accomplishing more than we thought possible? Whether out of wisdom, or perseverance, or some act of unselfishness, who among us has not confirmed what we stand for through our actions? Who among us, then, has not at one time or another entertained thoughts of perfection?

We human beings are a curious mix indeed. We are constantly either disappointing ourselves or surprising ourselves. Grounded in the here and now, struggling with an imperfect world, struggling with our imperfect selves, we soar away from time to time to

experience the promise of a more perfect world and a more perfect self. We transcend from what is to what ought to be. We turn what ought to be into what is. It is our ability to pull this off once in a while that gives us hope for the future.

If we insist, however, that the preaching of what ought to be is the domain only of those who never themselves transgress, we are in for either a world of silence or a world of hypocrisy. All I think we have a right to insist on is sincerity. And when, on occasion, someone preaches water and drinks wine, it is not necessarily an act of insincerity. It may simply be that the preacher is human. Imperfect beings that we are, our expectations must be tempered by humility and tolerance. What's really important, I think, is the degree to which we imperfect human beings are sincere about trying to rise above our present state, about becoming more than we thought possible, about working toward perfection. In my mind, aspiring to such a higher state of being is what gives purpose to our human existence.

HOW WOULD I CHARACTERIZE THAT HIGHER STATE OF BEING AND WHAT ON EARTH DOES IT HAVE TO DO WITH ENVIRONMENTAL ETHICS?

When I talk about becoming more than we presently are, I am not talking about becoming more physically fit, more well-heeled in the pocketbook, or any other common interpretation of the term. What I am talking about is a broadening of our awareness, an expansion of our sense of self, ultimately a stretching of our identity to include all living things. From my perspective, the best measure of our ascendancy as human beings - - the GNP notwithstanding - - is the degree to which we extend ethical consideration outward from ourselves to others, to the land, to other creatures, and ultimately to the Earth in its entirety. I look forward to that day when we exercise restraint in our conduct, when we make sacrifices, not out of altruism which denies oneself for the sake of others but out of the realization that we are, in fact, the other. I look forward to that day when, as E. F. Schumacher described it, we die to ourselves completely. That characterizes the higher state of being to which I aspire.

Given this goal, given this direction I wish to pursue, what shall inform me along the way? Science? I think not. Science concerns itself with what is. I am concerned with what ought to be. Philosophy? History? Folklore? Legend? Mythology?

In 1864, the nature writer George Perkins Marsh said "Man has too long forgotten that the Earth was given to him for usufruct alone, not for consumption, still less for profligate waste." For usufruct alone. What a curious word! Where did it come from? The term is rooted in a paradigm, a world view that originated not in scientific discovery, but in the rituals and beliefs of primitive people. The atoll dwellers of the Marshall Islands

believe they are part of the natural world, indeed that they are subservient to it. They view the world around them as a gift belonging to another which must be used in a way that does not destroy its substance. Theirs is the right of usufruct alone. Unlike our culture, the Marshallese have no concept of private property. How, they wonder, can we own what we ourselves are merely a part of?

I find it ironic that the concept of usufruct is more prevalent in primitive cultures than it is in advanced ones because it seems to me to be a more civilized way of thinking about what ought to be the nature of our relationship with others, with the environment, indeed with ourselves. Perhaps the difference between the orientations can be explained by the degree to which our culture is anthropocentric in its basic beliefs. In our mechanistic thinking, human beings are separate from and above nature, and we think we have a right to do with it as we please. The environment is reduced to a repository of matter that derives value only when extracted for our use. In less developed cultures, on the other hand, where human beings see themselves as part of a larger living organism, the environment tends to be thought of in less exploitive terms.

Interestingly enough, as scientist discover more and more about ecological interrelationships and interdependencies, it is becoming increasingly clear that we human beings are indeed part of nature. Perhaps it is only fitting, then, that we of the Western world now enter into a new relationship with ourselves in our entirety based on the concept of usufruct.

The relevance of usufruct rights to human conduct should be evident. Actually, these rights have been advocated for some time in the form of minimum impact philosophy and other calls for a more caring and compassionate code of human behavior. "Take nothing but photographs, leave nothing but footprints," for example, suggests a responsibility to enjoy the environment in a way that does not destroy its substance. Furthermore, the administrative policies of land managing agencies such as the National Park Service, which strives to tend the nation's scenic treasures so they will be "unimpaired for future generations", are based on the belief that these resources are gifts bequeathed by the ages. Clearly, the rudiments of a usufruct philosophy are in place.

Environmental usufruct rights are thus wrapped up in the conviction that access to the nation's store of natural resource brings with it not only an opportunity to enjoy, but an obligation to protect. The conduct of the holder of usufruct rights is marked by environmental awareness, sensitivity, and responsibility. Such a person understands that natural resources do not exist solely for his immediate gratification. She or he understands that they have a larger purpose, one that is realized only through their service to succeeding generations. Finally, she or he understands that it is the responsibility of this generation to guarantee that those

resources are allowed to fill that larger purpose.

I realize, ladies and gentlemen, that what I have in mind may seem far-fetched; especially in a culture that is drifting farther and farther away from its biological moorings. But that is precisely why an environmental ethic is so badly needed in this country. We are in danger of losing touch with our own nature, and most of us are oblivious to it. We suffer from what Brown University philosopher John Ladd calls "struthianism", a term derived from the Latin word for ostrich. We have our heads in the sand most of the time, leaving the critical understanding for someone else to worry about, preferably the scientists. Somehow we all need to be prodded into getting back to nature - our own nature. That is why I think our profession should advocate walking over pedaling over motoring. That is why crawling is probably even better. We need to be reminded where our food comes from, where our shelter comes from, where we ourselves come from. We need to be reminded of our earthly essence.

This, then, is my environmental ethic. As sincerely as I can, I will enjoy the splendors of this Earth in a way that leaves them no worse for the wear. I will be as kind as I can to this Earth, and in so doing be as kind as I can to myself. As much as is humanly possible, I will live my life in the light of my oneness with all things. And all the while I will be informed by words like those of the late Russian poet Marina Ivanovna Tsvetayeva:

I know, I know  
that earth's enchantment - -  
this carved  
charmed cup - -  
is no more ours  
than air is ours  
than stars  
than nests  
suspended in the dawn.

PARKLANDS AND WILDERNESS:  
AN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

Larry Beck

Abstract: Our planet is becoming, more and more, an interdependent network of communities. As the earth becomes "smaller" it is apparent that international relationships are critical for an optimally operating world. In addition to such global functions as politics and economics, wilderness preservation issues will increasingly be of international concern. This paper will explore some of the global dimensions of wilderness preservation.

---

INTRODUCTION

The Gallup Organization recently conducted a survey comparing the geographic literacy of U.S. adults with adults of other industrialized countries. The results were dismal. Among 18- to 24-year olds, Americans scored last in identifying 16 geographic locations including Canada, Mexico, Egypt, Vietnam, and the Soviet Union. Incredibly, 14 percent of Americans could not pick out the United States on a world map (Leslie 1988).

In response to these survey results the San Diego Union offered readers a quiz to test their knowledge of geography. Only a few days later The Union printed a map depicting the sweep of Hurricane Gilbert. The map incorrectly identified Guatemala as Honduras and vice versa. Also, Guatemala was misspelled (San Diego Union, 9/16/88).

Even more recently, a television feature aired on October 3, 1988, focused on the lack of knowledge attained by high school students. For example, one student thought that Chernobyl was Cher's full name. It seems ironic that as there is more interdependence in world affairs, there is such limited knowledge about the globe.

AMERICAN WILDERNESS

In America, wilderness was initially perceived as a worthless

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Larry Beck, Lecturer in Recreation, San Diego State University, San Diego, CA 92182.

impediment to progress. Governmental subsidies for development, a manifest destiny mentality, and a resource-intensive economy resulted in widespread destruction of wilderness (Allin 1982). As a consequence of the increasing scarcity of the wilderness resource, conservation policies were stimulated culminating in the Wilderness Act of 1964. As American society has become more technological, urban, and affluent, positive attitudes toward wilderness have developed. Overall, the civilizing process which destroys wilderness is the same that creates a need for wilderness. The marginal value of wilderness increases as a society becomes increasingly civilized. Nature appreciation is a "full-stomach" phenomenon according to Roderick Nash (1982).

#### INTERNATIONAL WILDERNESS

Nations that have extensive wildlands are less likely to appreciate them, and those nations that desire wilderness are unlikely to have it. However, developing nations want to appear sophisticated and are aware that developed nations place a high priority on wildlands. These nations are also sensitive to world opinion about their inclinations to protect natural settings. Natural environments, then, have become a commodity in an international market. In some instances the commodity is the experience of wilderness adventure (for example, hiking in Nepal or observing wildlife in Alaska). Beyond fulfilling experiential needs and serving as a source of inspiration, wilderness is important for a variety of reasons. Wilderness protects lands as models of unmodified nature. Protected land serves as habitat for potentially threatened species and provides for biodiversity. Wilderness preservation is also paramount because of worldwide environmental concerns over toxic waste disposal, air pollution, acid rain, ozone depletion, and the greenhouse effect. Ultimately, wilderness should be protected for nonanthropocentric reasons (Scherl 1987).

In 1948 the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) was founded. Membership in IUCN now includes 116 of the world's 160 governments (Eidsvick 1987a). These nations support conservation as a primary concern on the international political agenda, along with issues such as population growth, energy, human rights, and peace (Eidsvick 1987b). Global nature conservation is focused on the following four values: 1) economic, 2) ethical, 3) aesthetic, and 4) scientific. In recognition of these values, participating nations indicate that there should be a worldwide network of representative ecosystems. Currently, more than eight billion acres have been set aside to protect natural landscapes (McCloskey 1984). The balance of this paper will address specific national issues in international nature conservation.

#### TROPICAL FOREST NATIONS

When the Spanish came to Central America some 450 years ago, the Guatemalan highland forest covered 12,000 square miles. Now it has been reduced to less than 800 square miles and by the year 2000 all of

the cloud forests may be eliminated by logging operations, and slash and burn techniques. As a consequence, the average rainfall of Guatemala has dropped, while the average temperature has risen (Goldman 1986).

Similarly, in Brazil, rain forests are being destroyed. Brazilians aspire for their country to evolve much like the United States. This may indeed be likely because Brazil is a large country, blessed with abundant natural resources. Just as Americans moved west in the 19th century, Brazil's pioneers are moving into the interior of their country. Like the frontier Americans, Brazilians pursue jobs as farmers, ranchers, miners, and loggers. They also force indigenous peoples aside as they civilize the interior of the country. Unlike their American counterparts, advanced technology has allowed Brazilians to speed up the civilization process. As Americans depended on railroads to open the frontier, the pioneers of Brazil have aircraft and highways.

Unfortunately, the destruction of the region's forests may have negative global impacts. Exploitation of resources has resulted in displacement and elimination of unique animal and insect species. Furthermore, Brazilian and U.S. scientists have recently concluded that the burning of trees for grazing lands and crops contributes to global warming, the Greenhouse Effect. In fact, the burning of trees in the Amazon contributes to global warming almost as much as the burning of all fossil fuels--500 million tons of carbon and 44 million tons of carbon monoxide per year (L.A. Times 10/17/88). Beyond the damage done to the atmosphere, as the trees vanish so does the process of converting carbon dioxide to oxygen.

In the first televised environmental address to the nation, in early October, 1988, Brazilian president Jose Sarney responded to international criticism regarding the destruction of the Amazon rain forest. He outlined a series of steps which will be implemented to protect the nation's fragile environment from uncontrolled exploitation. Among other strategies, Sarney announced an end to tax breaks, subsidies, and other economic incentives for projects that damage the environment.

In Costa Rica, a Central American nation about the size of West Virginia, there are promising indications in the arena of tropical forest preservation. In 1969, Costa Rica was virtually without any form of protection for its environmentally diverse tropical forests. Within a decade this tiny country had established 20 national parks and biological reserves, within a Department of National Parks. The percentage of protected land in Costa Rica represents seven times more than the percentage of land set aside for parks in the U.S. during more than a century (Cahn and Cahn 1987).

#### THE GIANT PANDA OF CHINA

China, a nation of Asia, contains one billion people, more than

one fifth of the world's population. Perhaps the widest known wildlife concern in China involves the giant panda, a national wildlife treasure of international notoriety. In 1963, two small reserves were set aside to protect the giant panda. By 1978, 12 panda reserves had been established, and in the 1980s China initiated a national policy on environmental matters which affect the reserves (Machlis and Johnson 1987).

Although efforts have been made for the survival of the panda, it is an endangered species. The habitat of the panda consists of steep mountains in central China. Pandas feed entirely on the bamboo of these forests, eating up to 45 pounds of vegetation daily. Human habitation of the bamboo forests has adversely impacted the panda. Mountain villagers have disturbed the panda's habitat as a result of firewood cutting, livestock grazing, and farming. Forestry operations have also had a negative impact on the pandas. Perhaps most devastating to the panda population will be the consequences of a natural cycle. Bamboo, although abundant in the panda's range, flowers and dies at intervals of 40 to 120 years, depending upon the species. This cycle is relevant because it takes 10 to 15 years for the bamboo seedlings to mature sufficiently to provide a food source for the pandas. This natural cycle was of benefit to the panda when sufficient natural range existed because it intensified natural selection by forcing pandas to migrate and thereby mixing the gene pool (Machlis and Johnson 1987). Now, when the bamboo dies, the pandas will have no place to go, as they will be trapped on the isolated reserves. Perhaps some form of intervention will be possible. Regardless, this example indicates the necessity of providing large refuges for wildlife protection.

#### NEW ZEALAND'S RUGGED BEAUTY

New Zealand is known for some of the finest scenery in the world. In a country only two-thirds the size of California, 12 national parks have been set aside to protect alpine wilderness, forests, volcanoes, fiords, and beaches. These parks make up 7.5 percent of the land. With a population of 3.2 million, the New Zealand parks receive more than 3 million visitors per year. In this country, "tramping" is popular along world famous walks including the Abel Tasman, the Routeburn, and the Milford Tracks. Three of New Zealand's national parks are designated as World Heritage sites, including Mount Cook, New Zealand's highest mountain at 12,349 feet (Jordan 1987).

The park system in New Zealand is unique because of the role citizens have in formulating park policy. The National Parks and Reserves Authority is made up of 10 citizens who have knowledge about parks and environmental matters. The Authority, in turn, is required by law to allow the general public to be involved in decisions on policy (Cahn and Cahn 1988). Although policy is set by the citizenry, government employees manage the parks through the Department of Lands and Survey.

One of the most severe conservation problems in New Zealand stems from the introduction of exotic species such as dogs, cats, weasels, and deer. Originally, New Zealand contained only two species of mammals (bats). Now, introduced species are having detrimental impacts on ground-dwelling birds. Over time, these birds had lost their ability to fly, as there were no mammalian predators. Introduced species, however, competed with native birds for food and space, preyed on the flightless birds, and/or ate their eggs. Now, only about 12 species of birds are common of the 80 species which were abundant one hundred years ago (Cahn and Cahn 1988).

#### NATURE RESERVES OF THE USSR

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics covers a sixth of the planet's land surface and extends across 11 time zones. This mass of land includes tundra, taiga, mixed forests, mountains, deserts, and steppes. Representative elements of these biomes are protected in a system of nature reserves called Zapovedniki. This system contains some 130 reserves, of which 12 have been designated as biosphere reserves (King 1987).

The Zapovedniki are perhaps most similar to our national wildlife refuges. Although a few of the larger reserves are open to recreation, the Zapovedniki have been set aside primarily for scientific study. The reserves generally consist of a core area which is rigidly controlled and serves to monitor environmental change. The surrounding buffer zone protects the core area and, like the core zone, is restricted to public access. The reserves protect threatened plant and animal species including the snow leopard, European bison, polar bear, snow goose, and Siberian crane.

Still, the Zapovedniki protect less than one percent of the nation's land. And although there seems to be increasing freedom to question development projects that cause environmental damage, economic considerations continue to receive priority from government officials. Other management problems of the nature reserves include poaching and hunting, even within the off-limit areas of the reserves (King 1987). Although the Soviet government has instituted a program to educate citizens about endangered species, it is premature to judge if this will be effective in reducing poaching, pesticide abuse, and industrial pollution, many of the same environmental problems which plague other nations.

#### CONCLUSION

This paper has addressed only a select few examples of conservation efforts throughout the world. It is not possible for any individual to fully comprehend the vagaries of his or her own nation, let alone all nations of the world. Still, in a generation that finds Americans with German cars, Japanese cameras, shirts from Hong Kong,

television sets assembled in Taiwan, and drinking coffee from around the world, it behooves us to become knowledgeable about the interconnected spaceship earth we share.

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## SELECTION CRITERIA FOR OUTDOOR RECREATION EQUIPMENT

John Cederquist<sup>2</sup>

Abstract. --Six primary factors aiding in selection of appropriate types of outdoor recreation program equipment are discussed. Five considerations for selection of brands and sources follow, concluding with a five-part system for determining rental fees.

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### INTRODUCTION

Equipment for outdoor recreation is offered by many universities and colleges, government agencies, commercial enterprises and outdoor schools as part of their recreation service. Multiple factors are appropriate for consideration when choosing types of gear to be offered, brands to carry, and rates to charge for equipment use. Many of these considerations also apply to selection of other types of recreation equipment that may be offered by these entities.

The suggestions that follow were generated through operation of a large University rental program specializing in camping, Nordic skiing, cycling, and non-motorized boating. A number of illustrative examples are drawn from this operation. These criteria are transferable to any organization that provides outdoor equipment for educational, recreational or commercial purposes.

### DETERMINING TYPES OF OUTDOOR EQUIPMENT TO OFFER

Six primary determinants in selecting types are: inherent safety; interests of users; local outdoor resources; needs of the sponsoring organization; abilities of the provider agency staff; the agency's physical resources.

#### Safety

Most important for placement at the top of any list of equipment selection priorities is safety.

From the standpoint of a recreation program, there are four aspects of equipment safety: 1) offer equipment that augments

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- outdoor safety; 2) don't offer items that risk user safety;
- 3) choose items that remain safe without excessive maintenance;
- 4) offer items that are simple to use.

"High risk" is a frequently used term, but applies only to those activities lacking adequate preparation, experienced supervision, or adequate gear. "High adventure" is a much better term, suggesting excitement without inattentiveness to safety factors.

University of Utah Outdoor Program examples:

Compasses and topographic maps are available, as they are essential to backcountry safety. Wetsuits are available for renters who run river trips during cold spring runoff and cool autumn periods, providing the opportunity for protection against hypothermia. Avalanche beacons and shovels are available to users of backcountry skis.

#### The Interests of Equipment Users

Equipment selection should be oriented around the interests of users. These interests may be determined by item use histories (analysis of check-out forms or cash register tapes). Also revealing may be interest surveys of current or potential users.

Aside from the primary benefit of determining which types of gear to carry, these analyses may reveal the number of items to be kept in inventory to meet demand. The desires of one person should not alone determine whether an item will be carried.

University of Utah Outdoor Program examples:

An insistent student wanted snowboards (for snow surfing) in the rental inventory, but no others expressed similar interest. Great numbers of people desire basic camping packages, justifying the stocking of tents, sleeping bags, backpacks, stoves, and related gear in quantity.

#### Local Outdoor Resources

The agency should carry equipment for which there is an area of potential use within a day's drive. Outstanding natural features within this zone will generate strong interest for certain types of items.

University of Utah Outdoor Program examples:

One sailboat in the inventory has generated a modest rental interest. The University of California at San Francisco has a fleet of sailboats in great demand due to tremendous nearby water

resources. Conversely, the Utah program carries 130 cross-country and telemark ski packages to use in local mountain resources. Only a few ski sets are offered by the California university.

#### Needs of the Sponsoring Agency

In the case of educational institutions that provide outdoor equipment programs, considerations are made regarding serving departmental requests, the recreational needs of the educational community or the outside community, or a combination of these potential clients. In order to assure availability and limit wear, some schools (Brigham Young University and others) keep equipment for field trips, leadership training, etc. separate from the general rental program.

University of Utah Outdoor Program examples:

Departmental requests contribute slightly to rental income, but don't necessitate special handling except for different financial accounting. For instance, Archeology rents tents for field sites; Medical Rehabilitation rents cross-country ski sets for patients; cross-country ski inventory was increased to serve the needs of Recreation and Leisure Department ski classes.

#### Abilities of Staff

Selected equipment must be within the handling and maintenance skill levels of program staff. Training is possible for most types of equipment, but some may require specific skills not often found in part-time personnel. For example, specific certifications and mechanical acuity are required for renting scuba equipment or alpine skis.

Repairs must also be anticipated when choosing types of equipment, as staff must perform the repairs that aren't sent out for professional attention. Even the level of physical difficulty associated with handling equipment deserves consideration, as employees may be faced with heavy or awkward gear, complex mechanical operations, or toxic repair compounds.

University of Utah Outdoor Program example:

Hiring is based partly on applicants' familiarity with certain equipment types, such as mountain bikes, rafts and touring skis.

#### Storage

Consideration must be given to the space required for storage of recreation equipment. Factors include: adequate volume, security, and facilities for cleaning and repair. If rafts, canoes, or other boats are to be offered to users, the facility must have adequate indoor or outdoor space for setting up,

inspecting, and cleaning. This is also true for certain smaller items, such as tents and sleeping bags.

Parking and drive-up facilities may dictate types of gear to include in an equipment program. Weber State College's Wilderness Recreation Center is currently in central campus with poor vehicle access, making boat rentals difficult.

University of Utah Outdoor Program examples:

Located in the extreme southeast corner of campus, this program misses most walk-by traffic but enjoys ample parking and outdoor work space for ease of serving customers.

A lighted chain link enclosure surrounding boat racks was constructed to allow secure outside storage of twelve canoes and a sailboat.

Greater quantities of items cannot be offered, as the saturation point of indoor storage and working space has been reached.

#### CHOOSING BRANDS AND SOURCES: A BALANCING PROCESS

Once an agency determines what types of equipment to offer, certain factors aid in determining best brands and models to select. These elements include simplicity, durability, economy, availability, and product evaluation. If items don't meet these tests, the agency should not hesitate to switch model or brand. Associated with this process is finding suitable product suppliers.

##### Simplicity

The best choice is most often the product featuring the greatest degree of "user-friendliness". Users are often new to the activity in which they are participating, and complicated equipment requiring extensive instruction can be frustrating. In certain field situations, such equipment can even be dangerous. Simplicity of operation is important for both user and agency staff. Staff is more likely to make errors in storing, retrieving, and disseminating gear that is composed of separate parts.

University of Utah Outdoor Program examples:

Cross-country ski bindings of choice are easy to use and require minimum operational explanation. Some other popular binding types require practice before renters can easily use them.

Previously, some rental tents employed plastic joiners that were easily reversed or lost. Users were also frustrated by tent poles not joined by shock cords. Not only did this make assembly difficult in dark, windy or cold conditions, but also increased

the likelihood of tents being rented without all necessary parts in the bag. Presently, simple, high-quality dome tents please both renters and staff.

Confusion is also avoided by carrying limited varieties of models. This program offers five models of tents, and one type represents 60% of total tent rentals. Years ago, stocking as many as nine models kept renters and staff guessing.

### Durability

Recreation programs are harder on equipment than typical personal ownership situations, due to: multiple skill levels of users; hard use under sometimes difficult conditions; greater frequency of use; reduced level of care.

Most important among reasons for selecting durable items is safety in the field. A broken tent zipper is a nuisance during mosquito season, but potentially life-threatening when an early blizzard surprises campers in the backcountry.

Less durable items will require more frequent and more comprehensive repairs. When choosing between models or brands, it is wise to consider the feasibility of repairs by staff or commercial repair services. Multiple-user status sometimes affects warranties, increasing the importance of choosing sturdy gear.

University of Utah Outdoor Program examples:

"Thornproof" mountain bike tubes are used. Zippers are the achilles tendons of sleeping bags and tents; hardy zippers (YKK #7 or #9 coil type) are requested on products that use the fewest of them in the shortest lengths. Certain brands of cross-country skis are nearly impervious to failure, and these prejudice the program toward these makes. Canoes with ABS or polyethelene hulls are extremely tough, as are rafts constructed of hypalon or PVC. ABS plastic and hypalon are more easily repaired by staff than polyethelene and PVC, so the latter types are second choice.

### Economy

Getting the most for the agency's available money is important, but this need must be balanced against the importance of acquiring high quality equipment that increases user interest, satisfaction and safety. Low initial costs may be irrelevant if frequent repair is necessary, reinforcing the importance of durability in selecting gear. Buying "name brand" products often generates great interest among renters, and usually (though not always) assures dependability.

Often, wholesale pricing is available to providers of outdoor recreation equipment. Application must usually be made for dealership status. Quantity buying and organizing into buyer

groups can be helpful. It is important to meet agreed-upon payment terms to ensure the confidence of vendors.

University of Utah Outdoor Program examples:

Source A, a Salt Lake City retail store, does not offer significant discounts to the University. Source B does, and purchases are made appropriately.

Products such as cross-country skis are usually available at very favorable payment terms. Pre-season orders are made for October delivery. Although payment is made net 30, three-month to one-year payment delays are sometimes offered by suppliers.

Availability

Efficient pre-purchase research will generally spread buying among local and regional vendors and manufacturer-direct sources. Choosing sources is sometimes dependent on available stock and time required until delivery. The quality of previous service by suppliers is also pertinent to this decision.

University of Utah Outdoor Program examples:

Local businesses are supported by buying a third of inventory in their stores, as well as contracting repair services. The remaining two-thirds of 50 types of rental items (1200 individual pieces) are bought directly from manufacturers.

Whitewater canoes were at one time difficult to find locally, but important enough to justify driving to Duluth, Minnesota to pick up ten of them.

A Utah manufacturer has periodically dropped or changed tent lines, creating havoc with program inventory, but their in-state presence assures quick response to orders.

Product Evaluation

Before choosing among brand choices, it is important to evaluate products based on user comments and ideally, by pre-purchase demonstrations. Once a product is in the inventory, poll renters' reactions to the item. Program managers and staff should use and evaluate new equipment to experience the same frustrations (and delights!) that present themselves to customers. Products should be evaluated to determine if they are appropriate for intended use.

University of Utah Outdoor Program example:

Some items new to the rental program are "stress tested" in

the building, such as ski binding bails, tent poles, and ski poles. While damage infrequently results from these tests, this is always preferable to surprise failures in the field.

#### FOUR FACTORS THAT DETERMINE RENTAL RATES

First, the financial objective must be determined: will the outdoor equipment service be free, break-even, or for-profit? Rates will be set differently by service providers oriented around these financial variants.

##### Initial Cost

In addition to initial cost, consider ease of replacement.

##### Maintenance

Evaluate repair frequency, difficulty, down time and cost.

##### Ease of Rental

Examine the complexities of checking the item out and in; storage difficulties; preparation, cleaning, and other matters that affect the amount of staff time involved in renting an item.

##### Popularity

If an item is in great demand, the agency must determine if higher rates will be assessed to generate income (in the case of for-profit organizations), or if low rates provide the best value to clients (when profit is not a primary objective).

##### The "Going Rate"

Commercial rental agencies measure their rates against historic and current charges assessed by competitors. Not-for-profit organizations are generally less influenced by this information.

#### CONCLUSION

Outdoor equipment provider agencies must consider other service aspects that are not covered here. They include the needs of special populations, quantities of each type of item to be stocked, and provision of information resources such as books, maps, magazines, and guides.

As population pressures increasingly degrade wild environments, it is crucial that providers of outdoor recreation opportunities recognize their responsibility to assist all persons

in learning first-hand the value of preserving these areas. By selecting recreation equipment that facilitates this process and acting as a library of environmental information, the outdoor recreation agency is part of the solution to an important problem.

RISK MANAGEMENT IN PARKS AND RECREATION  
NEED FOR COMPUTERIZED INFORMATION  
MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

Dr. Steve Gray<sup>3</sup>

Abstract--The absence of an effective computerized information management system for risk management in parks and recreation settings has left many agencies exposed and vulnerable to needless lawsuits. Additionally, agency professionalism is threatened by unnecessary accidents and loss of human life occurring in our operating areas. This paper discusses existing park and recreation management risk analysis programs. Further, the need to assimilate existing needs and programs into a practical computerized information management system that can be used by administrators to program for needs and reduce losses is analyzed. Finally, the importance of developing computer conferences to share information regarding risk management is discussed.

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Exposures to tort risk and liability are inherent in parks and recreation operations. It is apparent that organized recreation demands the development and implementation of a risk management plan. Such a plan minimizes the potential for organizational liability and provides for the physical protection of both staff and clients. While it is impossible, and possibly undesirable, to create an absolutely risk-free environment or to eliminate all liability exposure, it is possible to reduce exposure to both loss and liability through effective risk management.

#### RISK MANAGEMENT BROADLY DEFINED

The fundamental objective of a risk management plan is to "efficiently conserve the assets and financial resources of the organization and to achieve financial stability by reducing the potential for financial loss" (Kaiser 1986, p. 229). Organizational assets include financial resources; equipment, facilities, and supplies; and human resources--staff and clientele. The risk management process consists of four steps--the identification, evaluation, and treatment of sources of risk and the implementation of

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a plan for performing the first three steps. It is a circular rather than a linear process, reflecting the dynamic nature of organizations. To effectively respond to ongoing changes in personnel, operating environment, available resources, organizational goals, and so on, the process must be a continuous one. While the approach different organizations take to risk management will vary according to their size, service orientation, and structural complexity, the elements of the process remain the same.

#### COMPUTERIZED INFORMATION MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

The complexities and rapid change associated with risk management makes successful implementation of risk management programs difficult. Unfortunately, park and recreation administrators have depended, for the most part, upon in-house safety programs for protection from losses and staff injuries. Little, if any, information has been shared among administrators. However, with the growing realization of the importance of risk management, increasing numbers of managers are realizing that a business-like approach in obtaining information necessary for the safe operation of facilities and the protection of visitors is required. The development of a computerized risk analysis program is needed in order to provide management with information on which to base their decision.

A beginning step is the development of a data base containing categories such as:

1. Number of facilities.
2. Total acres managed.
3. Hours per week spent on safety training.
4. Accidents per year:
  - a. visitors.
  - b. employees.
5. Number of facility inspections.
6. How often safety manual revised.

This information can provide the basis for formulating a risk management plan.

#### COMMUNICATION NETWORK

In conjunction with the development of an in-house system, the need for the development of a computerized network to facilitate the exchange of information related to risk management between geographically dispersed agencies is apparent. During the last few years, computer technology has changed so that many organizations have data and programs entered on dozens or hundreds of remote terminals, for execution on a centralized "time-sharing" computer. Now emerging are major information transfer and transaction networks, EFT (electronic funds transfer) being one example. When it is generally realized that we can integrate communications into these systems, we begin to visualize specific communication structures to replace what

we do now via such things as stock exchanges, classified advertisements, etc. This inherent merger of communications with what we now conceive of as information systems is a technology several orders of magnitude more powerful than either the telephone or TV (Carr and Curran 1976, pp. 141-176). Information is a resource with very real value that is dependent on its organization, timeliness, and relationship to what we normally perceive as human communications. This is nowhere more apparent than in the area of risk management in which growing numbers of liable suits, the often enormous settlements stemming from these suits, and the seemingly inordinate cost of liability insurance, if it is available at all, demand satisfactory information exchange.

#### NEW PROBLEM-SOLVING TECHNOLOGIES

Park and recreation professionals involved in risk management have begun to give up the illusion that the computer is a perfect machine that can quantify and analytically solve all problems. Cases of computer error, misuse, and abuse are now common knowledge. Another aspect of changing attitudes is not so widely recognized. The early theories of operations research, as typified by former Secretary of Defense McNamara's emphasis on cost-effectiveness in strictly quantifiable terms, have come into serious question, among both practitioners and clients.

The evolution toward the inclusion of nonquantifiable factors, reliance on the opinions of experts, and methodological emphasis on the problems of structuring communication among various experts or representatives of different points of view began in the defense sector of the U.S. government and spread to the nondefense sectors. For example, the Corps of Engineers has moved from reliance on highly quantitative computerized cost-benefit models for evaluating construction projects to environmental impact statements and the need to involve the public.

There is growing recognition that complete quantification of problems is not possible. With the heightened complexity of risk management, the more reflective of policy, planning, and decision issues, the more necessary are qualitative approaches and the use of informed human judgments or views. The risks and benefits of a major decision are just not completely quantifiable from "objective" data. As a result there has been a growing school of thought that what is needed are approaches that allow the coherent use of human judgments in the evaluation of complex problems. This conviction has been further supported by the growing recognition that our problems, are largely impure. They do not fit neatly within the expertise of a single individual or even that of a few individuals. Owing to the broad range of problems facing risk managers in recreation (i.e., transfer of legal risk, liability of recreation and sports facilities, nuisance laws, etc), the process of sharing information and opinions can be extremely beneficial.

What have evolved are techniques for structuring group communication processes so that it is more efficient for a group to pool and coevaluate their knowledge about a complex problem. Typical of these are the Delphi, using tailored paper questionnaires and feedback with anonymity for groups of 10 to 200 that are dispersed in time and space; and nominal group processes, which structure face-to-face meetings of small groups for the same objective (Turoff 1977, p. 55). These methods share the concepts that any human group, as it grows in size, requires a structure in order to be able to communicate--a strong chairman or a parliamentary process or other set of procedures--and that this structure can be designed specifically around the nature of the problem. Computerized conferencing is an outgrowth of this activity (Jordan and Churchill 1987, p. 419).

Computerized conferencing refers to any system that uses the computer to mediate communication among human beings. Changes in computer and communication technologies and the move to a complex information-based society have made this form of communication the cheapest, most convenient, and potentially most powerful option for geographically dispersed groups of people who must regularly exchange information and opinions (Blanc and Cotton 1976, p. 3-7).

#### EIES: ELECTRONIC INFORMATION EXCHANGE SYSTEM for Risk Management Cooperatives

Once the computer is put into the communication loop, the potentials for structuring, facilitating, and augmenting the communication and information exchanged among members of a user group are virtually unlimited. Turoff (1977) indicates that there are four main communications capabilities or structures within the EIES system namely: 1. messages, 2. conferences, 3. notebooks, and 4. bulletins.

Each individual human member of EIES belongs to interest group, which has its own name and number and is just as much an entity in communication terms as is the individual. For instance, one interest group might be concerned with liability in high risk recreation activities. A message may be addressed to one individual, many specific individuals, or a whole group. The time and date of receipt of the message by each individual recipient is confirmed to the sender, and then about a week later it disappears from the system. The content, like that of the informal one-to-one communication channels that it is meant to replace, can vary from chatty "How are you? What's new?" messages to a request for assistance or information related to a specific risk management problem. Group messages are frequently used to introduce new members who are joining, to broadcast general requests for information on a risk management problem, and to announce the availability of drafts, preliminary studies, or completed but as yet unpublished reports or papers on pertinent topics. As with all other entries in EIES, a user may choose not to divulge her/his identity by signing a message, but may instead have the message sent anonymously, or with a pen name.

The conference is a topic-oriented discussion in which a permanent transcript is built up of the proceedings (i.e., similar to the InterMountain Leisure Symposium except participants meet via the computer). A conference will typically last from a week to a few months, with participants entering and leaving the discussion at their convenience, and taking as long as they need to reflect on previous entries or consult references or data before responding. Each group has one or more conferences, and every individual belongs to one or more groups. Since "intellectual mobility" is simple on EIES, it is a frequent occurrence for a member to join a conference of interest in another specialty, as well as to participate in conferences set up by his/her own group.

A conference entry can be given an association number, noting the earlier items to which it is related. A participant can be helped in the review and organization of the proceedings by requesting all of the entries that are associated with a specific item. A user can also review the entries by asking to see, for instance, any that contain a certain word or phrase, such as intentional torts or nuisance law and sports facilities.

The notebook is the user's private on-line space for composing, storing, and reorganizing items on which he or she is working, with the aid of extensive computer-assisted editing routines. Designated pages of a person's notebook can be opened to others for reading; thus, for instance, after completing a report or paper concerning some aspect of risk management, the user could send a group message inviting anyone interested to read it and comment. Parts of the notebook can also be opened to others to write in, thus facilitating remote coauthoring.

The Bulletin is a public space, like an on-line newsletter. Any user of the EIES system can request the titles of Bulletin entries and then the abstract and/or the full text, if something is of interest. The Bulletin is used to publish short papers or discussions, "letters," announcements of meetings or grants or job opportunities of interest to the specialty, etc. Eventually, it might carry full papers and abstracts of papers published elsewhere, thus becoming an on-line journal that facilitates the speedy review and publication of research results and their selective dissemination to interested persons. Using a computer to mediate communication does not necessarily result in "cold or impersonal" communication; nor does it obviate the need for human participants to play some very active roles (Hiltz 1977).

Just as it takes a lot of work for the organizer of session at a professional meeting to put together a group that is well balanced among different points of view and to help the session run smoothly, so too there is need for a human organizer of a computerized conference.

In order for a computerized conference to be successful, the moderator has to work very hard at both the "social host" and the "meeting chairperson" roles. As social host she/he has to issue warm

invitations to people; send encouraging private messages to people complimenting them or at least commenting on their entries, or suggesting what they may be uniquely qualified to contribute. As meeting chairperson, she/he must prepare an enticing-sounding initial agenda; frequently summarize or clarify what has been going on; try to express the emerging consensus or call for a formal vote; sense and announce when it is time to move on to a new topic. Without this kind of active moderator role, a conference is not apt to get off the ground.

Since a group of users will typically have several conferences on different topics, each moderated by a different person, it also need to have an overall coordinator. The group coordinator helps new group members learn to use the system, allocates additional time to group members who need it, send messages to the group introducing new members who are joining, and answer questions addressed to the group by other groups. The role is something like that of a departmental administrator or manager.

The Bulletin cannot be published without an active, hardworking human editor and volunteer reviewers and writers, just as are need for journals or newsletters published and distributed in the more traditional manner. Typically an author would submit a paper, located in his/her notebook, to the editor. The editor would appoint reviewers, who would read the paper by accessing the notebook; the reviewers would then confer with one another and with the author using pen names. When they reached consensus, they would message (communicate with) the editor regarding the decision and the entry could be transferred to the editor for copy editing and publication within a few days. High-speed printers at the EIES host computer can be used to generate periodic hard-copy compilations of the Bulletin for distribution to interested professionals who do not have access to the system.

One key question that will determine the success or impact of this system is, what are the possible rewards or motivations for risk managers to assume the time-consuming roles? Availability of grant funds needs to be examined. Additionally, involvement of professional organizations, such as NRPA, and by university educators needs to be examined.

External to each group, there is always a console operator at the computer center to help users in trouble, either by answering a message addressed to "help"! or over the telephone. There are also "user consultants" who have volunteered to advise or help other members of the system to use the available features.

The overall system monitor is responsible for managing the communication system as a whole, and is the only person who can automatically address messages or announcements to all members of the system.

Besides these roles, the EIES system itself has several built-in features designed to encourage informal discussion or to provide the equivalent of the coffee break at a face-to-face conference. One of these features is the Directory, which lists the name, number, address, telephone number, and a self-entered five-line description of each of the members of the system. Thus if something written by a "stranger" interest a member, she/he can look up the unfamiliar person's affiliations and professional interest in the Directory.

#### CONCLUSIONS

Risk management in recreational setting is an increasingly important administrative function. For both financial and human reasons, administration must focus their attention on proactive measure for dealing with potential losses. Agencies must develop computerized information management system for risk management. Basic safety data must be collected and analyzed. Additionally, with the growing realization that complete quantification of problems in the field of risk management is impossible, there is an obvious need to share ideas and information necessary to address issues relating to policy, play, and decision-making. Computer conferencing represents the least expensive, most convenient and potentially most powerful option for coming to grips with the problems facing parks and recreation administrators in the area of risk management.

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MANAGING URBAN PARKS: A STUDY OF PARK  
FEES, PERSONNEL, SERVICES AND BUDGETS

Craig W. Kelsey Ph.D.<sup>1</sup>

INTRODUCTION

Parks departments find themselves in an all too familiar predicament - public desire and need to utilize public open space coupled with a decremental public budget in which the key phrase is, "Do more, with less". Urban park administrators have been as creative as managers can be under this catch-22 situation - creating marketing strategies, user fees, reduction of services, limiting use, increasing fees, corporate giving programs, federal grants and everything else under the sun in an effort to close the supply-demand gap. In an effort to provide the urban park manager with increased information to help in decision making, a study was completed during the summer of 1988 in which forty-five parks departments throughout Utah were surveyed regarding the issues of reservation fees, park personnel, services provided by the departments and park department budgets. The administrator may find that a comparison of their department to these statewide averages to be helpful. One note of caution, however, these figures represent averages and there is always a range between various departments and therefore the administrator should cushion their interpretation.

PARK RESERVATIONS AND RESERVATION FEES:

Historically, parks have been open to the public on a free for use basis with first come first served priority. This method appeared fair until the pressure to use limited resources increased. Then the company picnic with five hundred employees and their families found that a small family reunion was planned for the same location with a group of friendly grandmothers sitting and knitting at the park site all day long to guarantee their families traditional get-together. It was found that in Utah of the departments which require reservations for certain park sites (which are usually pavillions & athletic areas) eighty-eight percent charge a reservation fee in order to reserve the park area. Fifty percent charge non-residents

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of the community an additional reservation fee to compensate for not being a resident of the park area jurisdiction (city park reserved by a county resident).

Table 1.--Percent Charging resident park fee, percent charging an additional non-resident fee

|              | Yes | No  |
|--------------|-----|-----|
| Resident     | 88% | 12% |
| Non-Resident | 50% | 50% |

The average resident reservation fee was \$24.00 with an enormous difference in range from one community to the next. In the majority of cases the reservation fee or some portion of the fee was refundable upon completed use of the facility in which no damage occurred and the site was found relatively clean. The non-resident fee was slightly higher with an average of \$37.00 and a more modest range.

Table 2--Average and Range of park fees (\*extreme not included in average)

|              | Average | Range            |
|--------------|---------|------------------|
| Resident     | \$24.00 | \$6.00-\$225.00* |
| Non-Resident | \$37.00 | \$12.00-\$60.00  |

In a number of situations the reservation fee entitled the user to limited space. The following two charts show the differences in fees for residents and non-residents where additional fees were charged for other areas.

Table 3a--Average and range for other fee options available for residents

|                           | <u>Average</u> | <u>Range</u> |
|---------------------------|----------------|--------------|
| <u>Pavillion Only</u>     | \$26.00        | 0-\$36.00    |
| <u>Open Space Only</u>    | -0-            | -0-          |
| <u>Athletic Area Only</u> | \$16.00        | 0-\$20.00    |

It should be noted that the great majority of departments basically reserve a pavillion area and the space around it with additional specific athletic areas requiring a different fee schedule.

Table 3b--Average and range for other fee options available for non-residents

|                           | <u>Average</u> | <u>Range</u> |
|---------------------------|----------------|--------------|
| <u>Pavillion Only</u>     | \$40.00        | 0-\$100.00   |
| <u>Open Space Only</u>    | -0-            | -0-          |
| <u>Athletic Area Only</u> | \$17.50        | 0-\$20.00    |

The services provided for the fee were basic with little variation in what a user could expect for their fee. Almost all fees included electricity, water, clean up, tables, garbage cans and restrooms, with some agencies charging extra for electricity and water.

Table 4--Services provided for the park reservation fee

|                    |             |                     |             |
|--------------------|-------------|---------------------|-------------|
| <u>Electricity</u> | <u>80%</u>  | <u>Tables</u>       | <u>100%</u> |
| <u>Water</u>       | <u>80%</u>  | <u>Garbage Cans</u> | <u>100%</u> |
| <u>Clean Up</u>    | <u>100%</u> | <u>Restrooms</u>    | <u>100%</u> |

Half of the parks departments surveyed indicated that the parks could be reserved for either a full day or half day options. A half day was defined in most cases from 8 am to 4 pm and 4 pm to 10 pm. A very few departments broke the day into morning, afternoon and evening reservations.

Table 5--Percent of parks where half day reservations are available

|            |            |
|------------|------------|
| <u>Yes</u> | <u>No</u>  |
| <u>50%</u> | <u>50%</u> |

Where do the non-refunded park reservation fees go after they are paid? The great majority disappear into the general fund with a small number of departments creating an enterprize account. None of the departments surveyed were able to use these limited funds for capital development.

Table 6--What accounts park reservation fees are returned to

|                                    |            |
|------------------------------------|------------|
| <u>General Fund</u>                | <u>88%</u> |
| <u>Enterprize Account</u>          | <u>12%</u> |
| <u>Capital Development Account</u> | <u>0%</u>  |

#### PARK PERSONNEL

The average parks department maintains 3 1/2 managers, less than a 1/3 time planner and 58 3/4 maintenance employees. These figures represent total figures for the

entire department. The following chart shows the breakdown of employees by employment category (manager, planner, maintenance) and by employment status (fulltime, part time, seasonal).

Table 7a--Average number of park department employees by employment category and status

|             | Full-time | Part-time | Seasonal | Total |
|-------------|-----------|-----------|----------|-------|
| Managers    | 3         | 0         | .50      | 3.50  |
| Planners    | .25       | .13       | 0        | .38   |
| Maintenance | 15        | .63       | 43       | 58.76 |
| TOTAL       | 18.25     | .76       | 43.50    | 62.64 |

Therefore, the average department employees 18 1/4 full-time employees, a 3/4 position of part-time and 43 1/2 seasonal employees for a total of 62 2/3 equivalent full-time positions. An interesting perspective is to determine how many parks department employees there are per acre of park land. The following chart describes the average number of employees by employment category and status by the average number of developed and maintained parkland acres.

Table 7b--Average number of park department employees by employment category and status

|          | Full-time | Part-time  | Seasonal | Total    |
|----------|-----------|------------|----------|----------|
| Managers | 1:142 ac  | ---        | ---      | 1:142 ac |
| Planners | 1:747 ac  | 1:2,988 ac | ---      | 1:996 ac |
| Mainten. | 1:25 ac   | 1:597 ac   | 1:9 ac   | 1:7 ac   |
| TOTAL    | 1:20 ac   | 1:498 ac   | 1:9 ac   | 1:6 ac   |

There exists one manager for every 142 acres of parkland, one park planner for every 996 acres of parkland and 1 maintenance employee for every 7 acres of parkland. This

averages out to 1 employee for every 6 acres of parkland. Because there are a greater number of maintenance employees this reduces the number of acres per employee ratio greatly.

Another interesting perspective is that there exists one full time employee for every 20 acres of parkland, one part time employee for every 498 acres and one seasonal employee for every 9 acres of parkland.

Table 7c--Average number of park department employees by employment category and status by available but undeveloped parkland

|             | Full-time | Part-time  | Seasonal | Total    |
|-------------|-----------|------------|----------|----------|
| Managers    | 1:142 ac  | ---        | ---      | 1:142 ac |
| Planners    | 1:747 ac  | 1:2,988 ac | ---      | 1:996 ac |
| Maintenance | 1:25 ac   | 1:597 ac   | 1:9 ac   | 1:7 ac   |
| TOTAL       | 1:20 ac   | 1:498 ac   | 1:9 ac   | 1:6 ac   |

Another chart shows the same type of information for available but undeveloped parkland, which information by itself is not critical but if averaged with the available parkland may be helpful.

#### SERVICES

The typical parks department provides maintenance, planning and tree care as their primary services. A few departments provide horticultural services with even fewer providing recreational programs out of their department. About one-fourth of the departments provide other types of specialized services such as construction.

Table 8--Type of service provided by park department

\*Such things as special construction, specialized manpower

|                |      |             |      |
|----------------|------|-------------|------|
| Urban Forestry | 100% | Planning    | 88%  |
| Horticulture   | 63%  | Maintenance | 100% |
| Programs       | 38%  | Other*      | 25%  |

Of interest is that there exists in the State of Utah ten acres of developed and maintained parkland for every 1,120 residents. The National Recreation Park Association National Standards recommends that there exist ten acres of parkland per 1,000 residents which places Utah very close to the national standard. If a community also has available state or federal parkland in close proximity to the residents, the national standard could be reached easily. These figures do not include school property that is used as open space.

Table 9--Residents per acre of developed parkland

|                              |
|------------------------------|
| <u>NRPA Standard</u>         |
| 10 acres per 1,000 residents |
| <u>Utah Average</u>          |
| 10 acre per 1,120 residents  |

#### PARK DEPARTMENT BUDGET

Each parks department was asked to respond to several questions regarding their budgets, specifically operation and maintenance, personnel and capital development categories. The average parks department maintains a total budget of just over one million dollars with a little more than half that amount going to personnel and about 40% going to O and M. The range of budgets is as low as 25,000 to 56,000 to as high as 2 million to 3 million dollars for O and M and personnel respectively.

Table 10a--Average park department budget by category

| <u>Operation and<br/>Maintenance</u> | <u>Personnel</u> | <u>Capital<br/>Equipment</u> | <u>Total</u> |
|--------------------------------------|------------------|------------------------------|--------------|
| \$398,125                            | \$660,974        | \$61,500                     | \$1,120,599  |

Table 10b--Range of park department budget by category

| <u>Operation and<br/>Maintenance</u> | <u>Personnel</u> | <u>Capital<br/>Equipment</u> |
|--------------------------------------|------------------|------------------------------|
| \$25,000                             | \$56,0000        | -0-                          |
| \$2 million                          | \$3 million      | \$300,000                    |

This means that the average acre of Utah managed parkland costs \$375.03 to plan, manage, improve and maintain and that it costs \$14.61 per resident in tax dollars to perform this community service.

Table 10c--budget by category per developed parkland acre

| <u>Operation and<br/>Maintenance</u> | <u>Personnel</u>     | <u>Capital<br/>Equipment</u> | <u>Total</u>         |
|--------------------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|----------------------|
| \$133.24<br>per acre                 | \$221.21<br>per acre | \$20.58<br>per acre          | \$375.03<br>per acre |

Table 10d--Budget by category per resident

| <u>Operation and<br/>Maintenance</u> | <u>Personnel</u>       | <u>Capital<br/>Equipment</u> | <u>Total</u>            |
|--------------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------|
| \$5.19<br>per resident               | \$8.62<br>per resident | \$.80<br>per resident        | \$14.61<br>per resident |

Once again these figures represent averages and may or may not specifically reflect any one department. However, as comparisons have been made to selected departments, the figures in many categories are close. Therefore, some ability to compare any one department to these figures may be helpful.

## SEEKING SIMPLICITY - SIMPLE LIVING AND A LEISURE PERSPECTIVE

Andrea Philips

Abstract: Simplicity of living, if deliberately chosen, implies a thoughtful approach to life. It suggests singleness of purpose, sincerity and honesty within, as well as avoidance of exterior clutter. The idea is not necessarily to live with less, but rather to live with balance and integrity. This paper will explore the notion of voluntary simplicity - its historical basis, philosophical implications, and its application to leisure.

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### INTRODUCTION - VOLUNTARY SIMPLICITY AS A MEANS OF MAKING A DIFFERENCE

Sometimes we forget that the character of an entire society is the cumulative effect of the individual behavior of millions of people. When one considers the state of our country and the state of the world it is easy to become frustrated with the way things are. Conflicts between and within countries have resulted in the pervasive threat of chemical and nuclear warfare. The poverty and starvation of some, juxtaposed with the affluence and greed of others are cause for concern. The result of this frustration and concern is often apathy - the thought that it's too late to make things right.

We must remember that who we are as a society is a synergistic accumulation of who we are as individuals. Each of us makes a difference and how we live matters greatly. Simplicity of living, if deliberately chosen, implies a thoughtful approach to life. It means that we choose to live our daily lives with the conscious awareness of the interconnectedness of the entire world.

### THE ESSENCE OF SIMPLICITY (THROUGH TIME)

Many people today believe that voluntary simplicity is an idea developed by the hippies and flower children of the sixties, as a response to the turbulence of those troubled times. Yet the notion of simpler living is an ancient and seemingly universal ethic. In fact, many of the world's great philosophies and religions have advocated some type of simple living. The early Greek and Roman philosophers proclaimed the virtues of life unencumbered by complexity, as did several of the old testament prophets. The author of proverbs

acclaimed in prayer, "Give me neither poverty nor wealth but only enough." And Jesus Christ himself lived and preached a humble life of pious simplicity. Clearly the way to avoid over indulgence and greed was to exercise restraint and self-control.

The concept of simplicity has long been a prevalent aspect of American thought and attitude. The settlers who emigrated to this country in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries brought with them a strong social ethic which emphasized hard work, plain living, harmony, and self-control. These values were the very core of the Puritan ethic. Over time though, promoting piety and simplicity as a way of life among an increasingly diverse population proved to be a difficult challenge.

In the decades following the War for Independence, fewer and fewer Americans seemed to be attracted to a life of self-chosen simplicity. By the mid-nineteenth century, industrialism was generating conceptions of the good life never before envisioned or dreamed possible. Yet idealists continued to keep the practice of voluntary simplicity alive. Domestic simplicity was adhered to by some American middle-class families while transcendental simplicity was advocated as enlightened self-restraint by writers and philosophers such as Emerson and Thoreau. Transcendental simplicity emphasized a life of material self-control and artistic exertion. It drew its inspiration from historical precedent as well as from nature. Nature, contended the transcendentalists, could offer both a retreat from complexity and an opportunity for personal introspection.

Toward the end of the nineteenth century, a resurgence in the appeal of living with simplicity occurred among the increasing middle class. This renewed search for simplicity coincided with political and social progressivism. Proponents of progressive simplicity such as John Muir and John Burroughs advocated conscientious consumption, an uncluttered domestic life, and a reverence for enriching experiences in nature (Shi 1986). The momentum of modern urban and industrial life was however, difficult to restrain. Progressive simplicity remained something sought after primarily by those with idealistic aspirations.

By the early twentieth century our country was catapulted into an era of unprecedented prosperity and high living (Shi 1986). The number of people who consciously chose a life of simplicity was dwindling. But the onset of the Great Depression dramatically changed things for the masses. This economic and social disaster regenerated the almost dormant ethic of simple living. It became a matter of simplicity for survival. Survival that is until the onset of World War II and the resurgence of economic prosperity.

During the thirty years following World War II, consumerism was rampant. Even President Eisenhower implored during a press conference in the mid-fifties, "Buy anything" (Shi 1986). The standard of living rose enormously during the fifties through the mid-sixties, yet the incidence of worry, anxiety, stress, and depression tended to increase

right along with the level of affluence (Elgin 1981). By the late 1960's a counter culture emerged that emphatically rejected the values of suburban America. These were the hippies and flower children who sought to give meaning to life through self-awareness, personal introspection, sensual freedom, and simple living. Unfortunately, for many people this search for simplicity was translated into promiscuous sex and the excessive use of drugs. Still though, the efforts of these people manifested a profound statement about the superficiality of the American way of life.

By the 1970's the eccentric practices of the counter culture had subsided. As these "radicals" re-entered the larger society, they seemed to bring with them a continuing cynicism as well as a growing concern about the degrading quality of the environment. Many older Americans shared this growing environmental consciousness. One outcome was an ecologically inspired simplicity which helped to stimulate a revival of more temperate means of living. This simplicity stressed more concern about the quality of life than the quantity of one's possessions.

Once again as time passed, it seemed as if the simplicity of the seventies was short-lived. Ronald Reagan rejected the idea that the United States had entered an age of limits. In his acceptance speech at the Republican convention in 1980, Reagan was adamant in his contention that economic expansion, rather than retrenchment and conservation, would be the primary theme of his presidency.

President Reagan has lived up to his promise. As sociologist, Amitai Etzioni noted, "We're beginning to see a turn from deliberate simplicity to a more elaborate lifestyle" (Shi 1986). Hippies have been replaced with yuppies and for some, passion has been superseded by apathy. What then are the implications for the search for the simple life?

The United States is both the most materialistic and idealistic country in the world. This paradox has made simplicity possible, yet it has prevented it from being widely embraced. Since the settling of America advocates of simple living have been extolling a way of life that contrasts with an environment full of plentiful resources and opportunities for self-indulgence. Human nature, it seems, tends to believe that more is better. But by whatever method employed, some Americans since the seventeenth century have exhibited both the wisdom and the will to maintain their vision of simplicity. Simple living is still a choice as a way of life. Although this ethic will probably never capture the sustained allegiance of the majority, it still presents an enlightening source of conduct for a significant number of Americans. Simple living, for all its challenges, remains a conscientious path to a good life.

## THE ETHICS OF SIMPLICITY

The nature and practice of simplicity vary from person to person and from era to era. Voluntary simplicity should be considered as a philosophical and ethical perspective rather than as a specific prescription for living. As an ethic of self-conscious discretion, simple living advocates a deliberate affirmation of one's personal priorities. What this means is living with wisdom and integrity through carefully considered choices. Seeking simplicity can allow us to honor ourselves and to honor the land.

To live more voluntarily means to live more deliberately, more intentionally, and more purposefully. It demands focus and balance and is a matter of choice not force. To live more voluntarily is to pay attention and to be aware of ourselves as we move through life. This attitude toward living promotes self-sufficiency and self-worth.

Simplicity is a state of mind. It dwells in the main intention of our lives. Personal autonomy is sought as one focuses upon the essential aspects of life. Simplicity is not an avoidance of responsibility but rather a means of seeking a new and deeper level of responsibility toward oneself and the environment. It takes energy and initiative and speaks of courage and conviction.

Simple living encompasses the deliberate choice to live with less in the belief that more of life will be experienced in the process. It is an integrative way of living that balances both the inner and outer aspects of life. Simplicity is sought, not instead of material goods, but beyond material goods. It does not mean doing without, but advocates the appropriate use of what we have. The emphasis is upon personal and ecological humility rather than selfish desire or greed. John Burroughs (1906) reflected, "The grand mistake we make is in supposing...that our happiness will keep pace with the increase of our personal possessions. Such is not the case."

Simple living as a deliberate life choice offers an appealing alternative to traditional living. It can, though, be enormously challenging to maintain a skillful balance between the inner and outer aspects of our lives. Given the tremendous scope of human diversity, there is no single right and true way to live more voluntarily and simply. Deliberate simplification of our lives should not be equated with turning away from progress. The idea is not no growth, but rather, new growth. To simplify is to bring order, clarity, and purpose to life by avoiding clutter and complication, not by turning away from human advancement. Simplicity is a relative matter depending upon one's climate, culture, customs and individual character. Above all though, the simple life is a product of the direction of the mind which allows for inner security and a sense of well-being.

## CONCLUSION - SIMPLE LIVING AND THE LEISURE CONNECTION

Just as the faculty of human intellect had to be developed prior to the Industrial Revolution, it seems that right now the reach of our technological power exceeds the grasp of our inner development. Several years ago, John Naisbitt (1982), in his book, Megatrends, suggested that the "high tech" direction of our society should be complemented by "high touch." Somehow, for many people, this just hasn't happened. While we have soared into the Computer Age with great abandon, perhaps we have sacrificed some of the essence of good living. In the quest for technological advancement we seem to have compromised our inner development. We must right this imbalance by nurturing a degree of personal growth and integrity.

Simple living through enlightened self-restraint can be supplemented with a leisure perspective to achieve personal fulfillment. Leisure, in the classical sense, is perceived as a positive state of mind or attitude. This wholistic perspective is philosophical in nature and is an outlook towards existence. Living with a leisure lifestyle embraces the notion that life can be experienced with a sense of celebration and joy. We can live more consciously and peacefully, thus enhancing the quality of life. Harmony and balance may be attained through the integration of the philosophical aspects of leisure and simple living.

The spirit of simplicity is a great magician. It softens asperities, bridges chasms, and draws together action and intent. A person lives simply when his primary care is the wish to be what he ought to be, that is, honestly and naturally human. It means living with honor, with dignity, and with respect for the land. It consists of putting our acts and aspirations in accordance with the law of our being. It is neither so easy nor so impossible as one might think.

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AVALANCHES AND SKITOURERS: THE UTAH AVALANCHE  
FORECAST CENTER 1988 USER SURVEY

David Ream<sup>4</sup>

Abstract.-- The purpose of the study was to acquire feedback from those who use the daily prerecorded avalanche forecast message and to determine how the public interprets that message so that the Forecast Center can refine and improve the service they provide. This was accomplished by analyzing the results of a questionnaire survey which was completed by one hundred fifty four persons during April and May, 1988. The results indicate that the respondents, even though quite experienced, still have frequent interactions with avalanches. As the avalanche education of the respondents increases, so do the avalanche precautions they seem to take. Further study is needed to find better ways of communicating avalanche hazard to the backcountry ski tourer.

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INTRODUCTION

The Wasatch Range of northern Utah receives large amounts of very light dry powder snow during the winter season. This has made the Wasatch Mountains famous for their unparalleled skiing. During recent years, these excellent skiing conditions and the accessibility of the range to major urban areas have led to large increases in use of very avalanche-prone backcountry terrain for a variety of winter recreational purposes. These areas are used by cross country skiers, snowboarders, snowmobilers and helicopter skiers which increases the competition for untracked powder terrain.

Although the avalanche awareness in the Wasatch Mountains is relatively high, many individuals do not make decisions about snow stability using commonly accepted state of the art methodology such as snow pit data, but rely instead on the more subjective and less reliable factors such as intuition or information from friends (Riebsame 1977; Jenkins, Schreyer, Kobe 1988). For instance, backcountry users may decide to ski a slope because "it feels ok" or may decide not to ski a certain slope because someone was killed there sometime in the past.

This "Crystal Ball" snow stability analysis, combined with the competition for untracked powder, present a potentially dangerous

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<sup>4</sup> The author is a senior at the University of Utah in the Outdoor Recreation program, majoring in Resource and Parks Management. He has had extensive avalanche experience around the Wasatch Front as a ski patrolman at Alta for the past 15 Years.

situation. Those in the fields of avalanche forecasting and education feel that it is necessary to study their methods of communication and education in order to provide information to the public which will more clearly articulate the relative stability of backcountry slopes and lessen the chances for tragedies to occur. Armstrong and Williams note that the use and importance of education to give the public enough basic knowledge to avoid avalanches is a vital element in keeping the number of avalanche fatalities to a minimum (Armstrong and Williams 1986).

This paper presents an analysis of results from a questionnaire survey conducted by the Utah Avalanche Forecast Center during April and May of 1988. The purpose was to get a better understanding of who uses its services and how those persons can be better served. This survey was intended to provide insight into: 1) the general demographic profiles of the people who use the Utah Avalanche Forecast Center's daily avalanche recording; 2) the relationship between reported ski skill, avalanche education and involvement with avalanches; 3) the relationship between avalanche education and the precautions that people take while touring in avalanche-prone terrain; and 4) perceptions of the meaning of various avalanche hazard ratings used by the UAFC-- low, moderate, high and extreme. Concerning the relationship between avalanche education and the precautions taken while touring, we assume that as a person's avalanche education increases so do the amount of precautions taken.

#### METHOD

Various methods were used to distribute the questionnaire used in the survey. The primary method was to ask those who call into the daily avalanche hazard recording to complete a questionnaire that would be mailed to them. In addition, questionnaires were made available at mountaineering specialty stores and were placed under the windshield wipers of autos parked at trail heads to popular backcountry touring areas. In all, three hundred surveys were distributed. One hundred and fifty four, or 51.8%, were returned yielding 148 surveys with usable data.

The survey was conducted in April, which probably led to some sampling bias due to the fact that those who are still skiing or calling the Forecast Center at that time constitute the more "hard core" backcountry skier population.

#### MEASUREMENT

The questionnaire was written by the UAFC staff with the independent guidance of Dr. Tim Larson.<sup>5</sup> The instrument consisted of four pages of detailed questions, ranging from simple demographic

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<sup>5</sup> Dr. Tim Larson is a professor in the Department of Communication at the University of Utah.

questions to specific questions such as a respondent's relative avalanche education, avalanche involvement and avalanche avoidance precautions. Most of the questions within the survey were scored by using a seven point Likert scaling system with scale points represented by never, almost never, seldom, sometimes, often, almost always and always.

#### DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

The data analysis was performed with the SPSS/PC statistical software package. Data associated with questions one, two, and four were analyzed by running a simple frequencies procedure to describe respondents according to their gender, age, zip codes, involvement with avalanches, etc. Data associated with question three were analyzed by examining the means of a measure of extent of avalanche precautions taken across categories of avalanche education level, ranging from "none" to "teacher".

#### RESULTS

##### Results Associated with Question One

The basic demographic profile of the questionnaire respondents is as follows:

Gender:

Thirty respondents or 20% were female; 116 or 80% were male.

Age:

Nine percent of respondents were under the age of 24; 68.5% of the respondents were between the ages of 25 and 35; 19.2% were between the ages of 35 and 45; and 3.4% were 45 or older.

Zipcodes:

The sampling revealed that over half (56.8%) of the respondents live in a fairly localized section of metropolitan Salt Lake City. This area is bounded by the "Avenues" on the north, 5th East Street on the west, 3900 South Street on the south, and the east bench area on the east side of the valley.

##### Results Associated with Question Two:

In looking at the relationship between reported ski skill, avalanche education and involvement with avalanches, the results show that respondents have considerable knowledge and experience in regard to skiing skills, avalanche skills and avalanche experience. The average respondent has had 7.4 years of backcountry skiing experience and spends an average of 5.3 days per month skiing in the backcountry. Of the total sample, 92 percent consider themselves to be "advanced", "expert" or "extreme" skiers. Table 1 summarizes the respondents' rating of their own avalanche education and skill levels.

Table 1.--Avalanche education and skill levels of respondents

|                    |                                                                                                                  |
|--------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <u>1 or .7%</u>    | Have no knowledge of avalanches.                                                                                 |
| <u>13 or 8.8%</u>  | Have some knowledge of avalanches but have not read books or taken classes.                                      |
| <u>38 or 25.7%</u> | Have read at least one avalanche book and/or attended a 1 hour avalanche awareness talk.                         |
| <u>66 or 44.9%</u> | Have read several avalanche books and/or have taken a 1-4 day seminar from a reputable instructor or equivalent. |
| <u>23 or 15.9%</u> | Have taken a week-long course or equivalent.                                                                     |
| <u>6 or 4.1%</u>   | Felt comfortable being an instructor for a multi-day avalanche course.                                           |

In comparing the respondents' reported ski skills with their reported avalanche education skills (Figure 1), it appears that the respondents rate their ski skills at least one notch higher than their avalanche education skill level. This would indicate that their avalanche education and skills are not keeping up with their skiing skills and herein lies the problem.

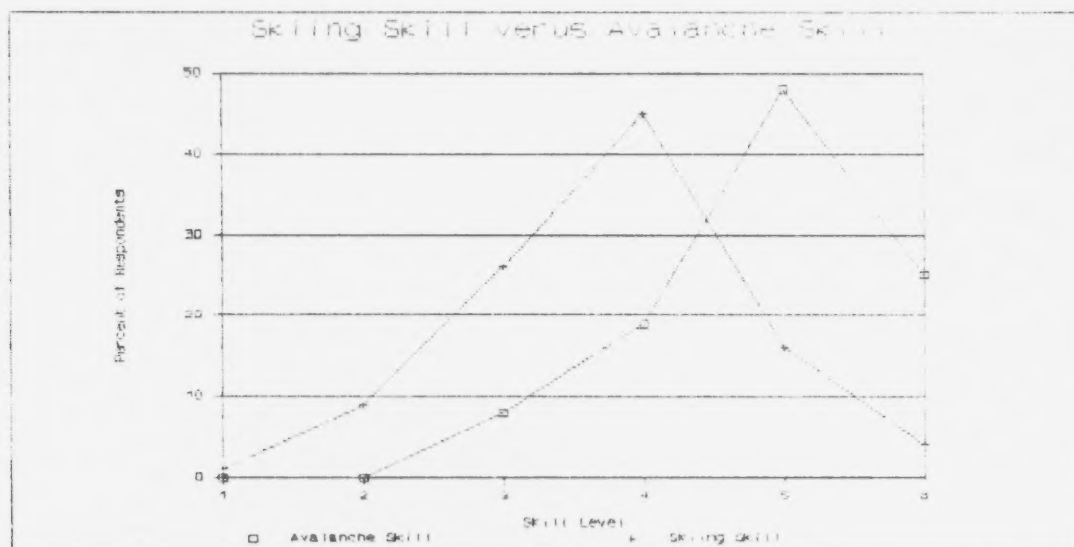


Figure 1. Respondents' self-rating of skiing and avalanche skills.

The greater one's skiing skills, the more likely one will be to ski advanced terrain, which because of its steepness, poses a greater avalanche hazard. The disparity between the respondents' ski level and

their education level creates a gap in their ability to assess avalanche risk - a gap which could prove deadly.

A Chi-Square based upon cross tabulation of avalanche involvement and skiing ability indicates a very low probability that these two variables are independent of one another. (Table 2.)

Table 2. Summaries of cross tabulation of avalanche involvement and skiing ability

| <u>Chi-Square #</u> | <u>Deg. of Freedom</u> | <u>Sig.</u> |
|---------------------|------------------------|-------------|
| 25.81               | 3                      | <.0001      |

In considering the high level of the respondents' skiing skill and the low probability of independence with avalanche involvement, it is no wonder that 76 percent of the questionnaire respondents reported that they have been involved with an avalanche at some point in their lives. On average, they have witnessed 5.2 human-triggered avalanches and have triggered 2.6 avalanches. The responses show that 37 out of the 125 respondents who answered this question have been caught and carried in an avalanche, while 20 have been partially buried and one person has been totally buried. It seems as though a large percentage of the survey respondents have been acquiring their avalanche education and knowledge in large part by trial and error and are lucky to be living to tell about it.

#### Results Associated with Question Three

An "avalanche precaution" index was constructed in order to test the relationship between avalanche education and the precautions that people take while touring in avalanche-prone terrain. That index consists of variables such as 1) whether the person carried an avalanche rescue transceiver and a shovel while skiing in avalanche terrain; 2) the average number of times per season the person practiced with his/her avalanche rescue transceiver; 3) whether the person avoids avalanche terrain when skiing in the backcountry; and 4) the frequency with which the person calls the UAFC before going out on a tour. The index was constructed by summing across responses to these questions.

Table 3 summarizes the results of an analysis of variance procedure performed upon the avalanche precaution index and levels of avalanche education, comparing the person's avalanche education with their precautions taken while touring. The analysis indicates that there is a significant ( $p < .01$ ) linear relationship between the precautions taken while touring and the amount of avalanche education. As the mean of avalanche education increases, so does the mean amount

of precaution taken while touring. This seems to support the assumption that avalanche education could make a difference in increasing precautionary measures among individuals traveling in avalanche-prone terrain.

Table 3.-- Summary of analysis of variance procedures performed upon the avalanche precaution index by groups defined by avalanche education level and group means on precautions taken while touring by levels of avalanche education

| <u>Source</u>  | <u>Sum of sq.</u> | <u>DF</u>         | <u>Mean sq.</u> | <u>F</u> | <u>Sig.</u> |
|----------------|-------------------|-------------------|-----------------|----------|-------------|
| Between groups | 12.65             | 4                 | 3.16            | 6.15     | .0001       |
| Linearity      | 10.99             | 1                 | 10.99           | 21.36    | <.0001      |
| R = .3779      |                   | R Squared = .1428 |                 |          |             |

| <u>Education level</u> | <u>Precaution level mean</u> | <u>Std Dev.</u> | <u>Cases</u> |
|------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------|--------------|
| Some                   | 2.1250                       | .8345           | 8            |
| 1 book                 | 2.4688                       | .8418           | 32           |
| Mult.books             | 2.9677                       | .6521           | 62           |
| 1 week                 | 3.0000                       | .6901           | 22           |
| Teach                  | 3.5000                       | .5477           | 6            |

#### Results Associated with Question Four:

One of the primary reasons for doing this survey was an attempt to clarify people's perceptions of the various hazard ratings used by the UAFC--"moderate" hazard in particular. The Forecast Center perceives that peoples' perceptions and interpretations of hazard categories used in the daily forecast present a potential problem because peoples' interpretation of terminology is a bit fuzzy. In fact, there is no specific definition of these terms so it is no wonder that perceptions are fuzzy. In rating avalanche hazards, the scale consists of four ratings--"low", "moderate", "high" and "extreme". The "moderate" hazard rating holds the most interest for avalanche forecasters because statistically along the Wasatch Front, that rating is where most of the human-related avalanche incidents take place (Figure 2).

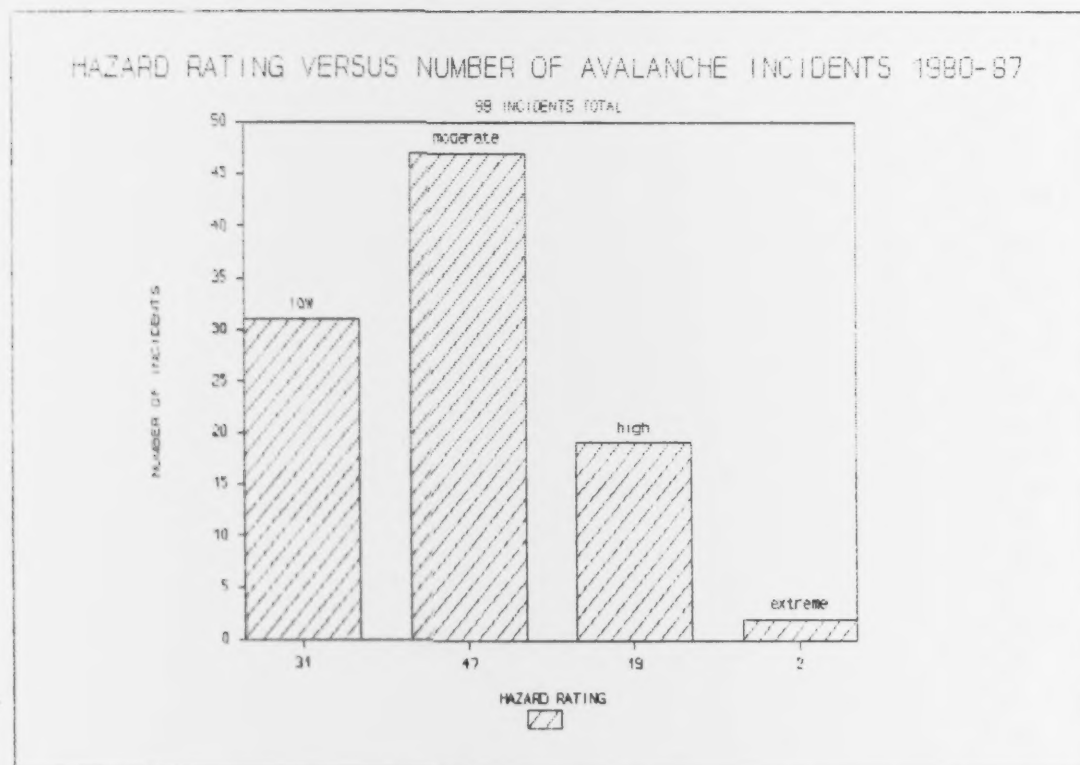


Figure 2. The number of avalanche incidents in Utah for a 7-year period plotted against the hazard rating used in the area where the incident occurred.

On days where the hazard rating is "high" or "extreme", the terminology seems to be fairly clear and we find that there are fewer avalanche incidents as people tend to stay clear of the more hazardous areas. The figure illustrates that there are a large number of incidents both in the "low" and "moderate" categories which may be an indication of the problem with this terminology as well as the fact that these are the most prevalent ratings.

The survey respondents were asked to indicate what they felt the probability of triggering an avalanche was for the various hazard categories. Figure 3 summarizes the responses. As a measure of comparison, the UAFC forecasters indicated that they would rate the probability of a human-triggered avalanche for the various hazard categories as follows: less than 5% for "low" hazard; between 5 and 20% for "moderate" hazard; between 20 and 40% for "high" hazard; and between 40 and 80% for "extreme" hazard.

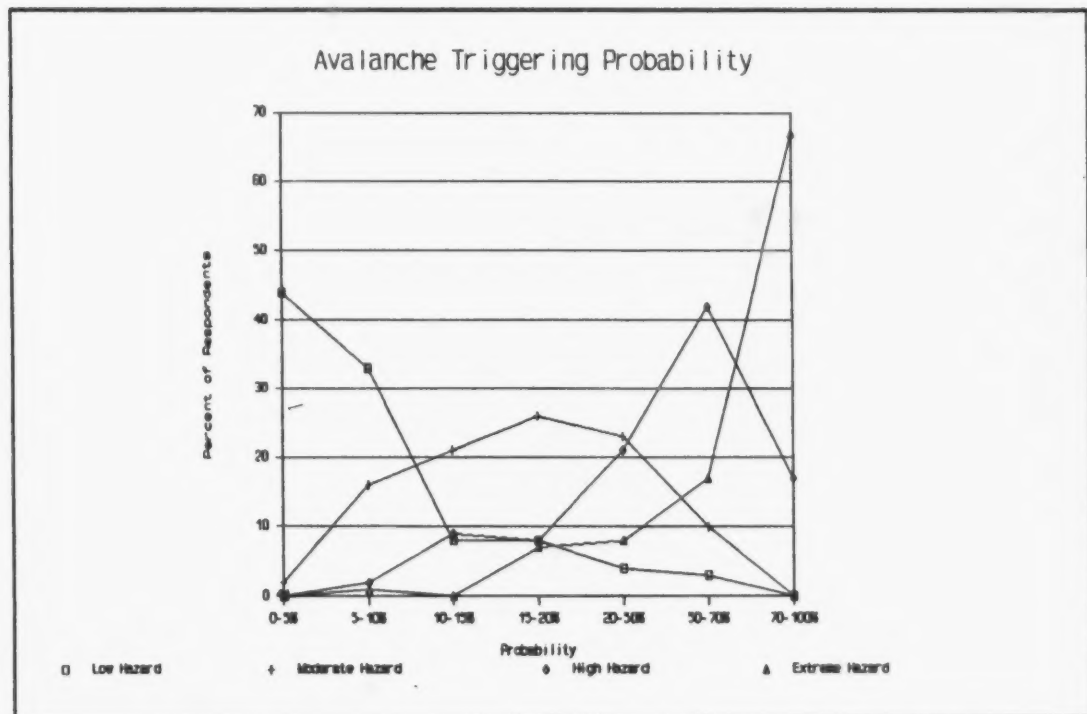


Figure 3.--Respondents' rating of probability of human-triggered avalanches for each of the four hazard categories.

This graph indicates that there is a large scatter of responses between the various categories and that the customers' responses were more closely matched to the forecasters' perceptions on the "low" and "extreme" categories and less so on the "moderate" and "high" categories.

An open-ended question was used in an attempt to determine what the "moderate" hazard rating meant to the respondents. The question asked "If the Avalanche Forecast Center says "moderate hazard" for a particular type of slope, what does this mean to you?" A subjective rating of the answers is as follows: 3.6% underrated the hazard; 14.5% overrated the hazard; 50.0% were roughly correct in their rating; and a disturbing 31.9% were way off base. This seems to indicate that nearly 32% of the respondents lack the knowledge to be able to satisfactorily verbalize the meaning of "moderate" hazard and only 50% even have a general understanding of what it means.

Concerning question one of the survey: Of the population that was sampled 80% were male and 20% were female. Sixty-eight and one half percent of the sample were between the ages of 25 and 35 while 9% were younger and 21.5% were older. Over half of the respondents (56.8%) live within the boundaries of Salt Lake City with the rest living in scattered locations around the valley.

Concerning question two of the survey, the respondents generally rated themselves as very good skiers with extensive experience traveling in backcountry ski terrain. The survey shows that respondents are relatively well-educated about avalanches with nearly 45% having read several books and/or having taken a 1-4 day seminar from a reputable instructor or equivalent while 20% have more extensive avalanche education. It appears that while most respondents have a relatively good avalanche education, they are using intuitive rather than methodical forecasting techniques. It is disturbing to find that respondents have triggered avalanches at the rate of 2.6 per person with over 40% of the respondents having been caught and carried in an avalanche.

Concerning question three of this survey, it appears that as respondents increase their avalanche education they will be more likely to take active precautions to mitigate the hazards of avalanche interaction. They do this by carrying avalanche rescue transceivers and shovels when traveling in avalanche terrain, practicing to a limited degree with their avalanche transceivers, avoiding avalanche terrain and calling the Avalanche Forecast Center before going touring in the backcountry.

Concerning question four of this survey, it seems apparent that the terms--"low", "moderate", "high" and "extreme"-- used in describing the avalanche hazard are less than perfect to accurately describe the degree of hazard. This is especially evident from the finding that only 50% of the survey respondents can adequately verbalize what "moderate" hazard means. Since the major percentage of interactions between humans and avalanches occur during "moderate" hazard conditions, it is especially important that new techniques and terminology be explored in an attempt to find more descriptive ways for communicating avalanche hazard.

#### CONCLUSIONS

The participants in this survey are quite well experienced in skiing skills, backcountry skiing experience and avalanche skills. Even though they are quite experienced, they still have a high incidence of interaction with avalanches. This is possibly due to their avalanche forecasting methods which tend to be of an intuitive nature instead of methodological. Avalanche education seems to have a positive effect upon the precautions that people will take while traveling in avalanche terrain. Thus it is critical to emphasize the

importance of education to backcountry users in the hopes that increased awareness will contribute to increased precautions used in the backcountry.

The survey results also indicate that certain types of presently used avalanche hazard descriptive terminology can be misleading and misunderstood by the audience which is being addressed in avalanche hazard forecasting. Because of the confusion surrounding these terms, it is imperative both to develop new and more accurately perceived descriptions and to supplement the hazards ratings with additional detailed information which will enable the users to make more informed decisions about potentially life threatening situations.

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## RECREATION CENTER FEES AND CHARGES:

### A STATEWIDE STUDY

Craig W. Kelsey, Ph.D.<sup>1</sup>

The recreation center manager must always assess their fees and charges to remain fair to their clients, the government or agency sponsor, to avoid unfair competition to the private sector and to meet the financial needs of the center. Many recreation centers that are sponsored by local government entities require fees that are not as high as the private sector would need in order to remain solvent, and are therefore subsidized by the general tax fund. Some agencies are changing and moving to an enterprize account in which the center, it's programs and resources must at least balance at the end of the fiscal year. The primary reason for this change is a combination of pressure from local government leaders, a belief that the public is more willing to "pay to play" and the reality of raising center costs. As a consequence a study was made of the recreation centers sponsored by local government entities in an attempt to determine the current fee and charge schedule as of summer 1988 throughout the State of Utah. This study looked at general recreation center entrance fees, fees for lessons, leagues and tournaments and also participation rates at the center.

## RECREATION CENTER FEES AND CHARGES

The average fee to enter a public supplied recreation center is \$2.00 for an adult with a high fee of \$5.60 for a family and a low fee of \$1.18 for senior citizens. The fee for a non- resident of the service area of the center (a county vs. city resident for example) is slightly higher, however, few agencies make a distinction between resident and non-resident patrons. (See Table 1)

Many agencies make available a year pass so that a patron may make continious use of the center with the convenience of easy access and perhaps an overall reduction in price. The average fee for a year long family pass is about \$150.00 with as much as a \$200.00 difference between one center and another. (See Table 2)

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<sup>1</sup>Associate Professor of Parks and Recreation, Utah State University, Logan, UT.

Table 1.--Average entry fee per Recreation Center by participant category.\*

|                   | Resident | Non-Resident |
|-------------------|----------|--------------|
| Adult             | \$2.00   | \$2.25       |
| Youth (Under 11)  | \$1.35   | \$1.75       |
| Family            | \$5.60   | \$7.00       |
| Senior Citizen    | \$1.18   | \$1.25       |
| Student (12 - 18) | \$1.80   | \$1.95       |

\*The vast majority of centers do not distinguish between residents and nonresidents.

Table 2.--Average and range of annual Recreation Center pass (for family resident).

| Average  | Range    |
|----------|----------|
| \$146.67 | \$30-230 |

When a patron pays for entrance to the recreation center, they have available several opportunities at no additional charge. However, other services provided by the center require an additional fee above the entrance fee. The following table describes what services are most common within a recreation center. It can be seen that shower/locker and weightroom are usually available while other services might be limited.

Table 3.--Percent by type of service provided by Recreation Center.  
(\*Such services as: Swimming pool, Ice Skating, etc.)

|                   |        |             |        |
|-------------------|--------|-------------|--------|
| Shower/Locker     | \$ 0   | Gameroom    | \$ 0   |
| Racquetball       | \$2.50 | Sauna/Steam | \$ 0   |
| Track             | \$ .70 | Ping Pong   | \$ 0   |
| Basket/Volleyball | \$ 0   | Billiards   | \$ 0   |
| Tennis            | \$1.50 | Swim Pool   | \$1.65 |
| Weight Room       | \$1.50 | Ice Skating | \$1.00 |

When other services are made available and an additional fee is charged, that additional fee might be as much or more as the recreation center fee itself. It should be noted that the additional fee appears to be in direct proportion to the limited availability of the facility. Fewer patrons can participate in racquetball or tennis hence an increased fee to control the participation.

Table 4.--Average additional fee for other Recreation Center Services

|               |        |             |        |
|---------------|--------|-------------|--------|
| Shower/Locker | \$ 0   | Gameroom    | \$ 0   |
| Racquetball   | \$2.50 | Sauna/Steam | \$ 0   |
| Track         | \$ .70 | Ping pong   | \$ 0   |
| Basket/Volley | \$ 0   | Billiards   | \$ 0   |
| Tennis        | \$1.50 | Swim Pool   | \$1.65 |
| Weightroom    | \$1.50 | Ice Skating | \$1.00 |

#### LESSONS

The lessons that are available at a recreation center generally are a function of the available facility and popularity of the activity. It is noted that most agencies provide instruction in tennis and aerobic dance while fewer provide lessons in the area of cooking and the new activity of kickball.

Table 5.--Percent of Recreation Centers that offer lessons in the above areas

| Type of<br>Lessons | % Offering the<br>program |
|--------------------|---------------------------|
| Tennis             | 89%                       |
| Racquetball        | 17%                       |
| Karate             | 44%                       |
| Wrestling          | 17%                       |
| Cooking            | 11%                       |
| Golf               | 28%                       |
| Gymnastics         | 39%                       |
| Tumbling           | 39%                       |
| Kickball           | 11%                       |
| Aerobic Dance      | 56%                       |

The fee schedule for lessons appeared to be quite consistent statewide with few exceptions. Golf instruction was consistently the most expensive while junior age activities the least expensive.

Table 6.--Average fee charged for recreation program, average number of one hour lessons per fee and average cost per lesson for resident.

| Lessons     | Resident | Non-Resident | # of Lessons | Cost Per Lesson |
|-------------|----------|--------------|--------------|-----------------|
| Tennis      | \$14.00  | \$16.00      | 9            | \$1.56          |
| Racquetball | \$17.00  | \$20.00      | 9            | \$1.89          |
| Karate      | \$19.00  | \$25.00      | 11           | \$1.73          |
| Wrestling   | \$14.00  | \$19.00      | 15           | \$ .93          |
| Cooking     | \$13.00  | \$13.00      | 16           | \$ .81          |
| Golf        | \$21.00  | \$21.00      | 6            | \$3.50          |
| Gymnastics  | \$19.00  | \$20.00      | 10           | \$1.90          |
| Tumbling    | \$18.00  | \$20.00      | 9            | \$2.00          |
| Kickball    | \$14.00  | \$14.00      | 8            | \$1.75          |
| Aerobics    | \$17.00  | \$20.00      | 13*          | \$1.31          |
| AVERAGE     | \$16.60  | \$18.80      | 11           | \$1.74          |

(\*Great variation in numbers of lessons offered for fee.)

It is helpful to note the number of lessons made available for the fee and the cost per lesson ratio. Most programs provide instruction for one hour per week for an average of about ten weeks. The aerobics was the most common exception with great variation in the number of lessons made available to the patrons.

#### LEAGUES

A greater percentage of the centers provide leagues than they do lessons but in some circumstances the leagues are styled very much like a lesson format. The most common leagues were basketball and youth basketball with the least common wallyball.

Table 7.--Percent of Recreation Centers that offer leagues in the above areas

| Type of League | % Offering League |
|----------------|-------------------|
| Softball       | 83%               |
| Basketball     | 89%               |
| Flag Football  | 39%               |
| Volleyball     | 56%               |
| Wallyball      | 6%                |

|                       |     |
|-----------------------|-----|
| Youth Flag Football   | 33% |
| Girls Youth Softball  | 44% |
| Youth Baseball (9-12) | 72% |
| Pony League (13-14)   | 56% |
| Colt League (15-16)   | 44% |
| Coaches Pitch (7-8)   | 67% |
| Youth Basketball      | 89% |

Of course the provision of leagues is primarily a function of available facilities within or adjacent to the recreation center. The fee charged to participate in league may be assessed on a team basis or on an individual basis.

Table 8.--Average fee charged per resident team or individual, average number of games played for fee and average cost per game for the above listed leagues

| League                | Resident         | # of Games  | Cost per Game    |
|-----------------------|------------------|-------------|------------------|
| Softball              | \$230.00 (team)  | 13          | \$17.69 per team |
| Basketball            | \$225.00 (team)  | 12          | \$18.75 per team |
| Flag Football         | \$165.00 (team)  | 10          | \$16.50 per team |
| Volleyball            | \$100.00 (team)  | 10          | \$10.00 per team |
| Wallyball             | \$ 15.00 (indv.) | 10          | \$ 1.50 indv.    |
| Youth Flag Foot.      | \$ 18.00 (indv.) | no response |                  |
| Girls Yth Sfbl.       | \$ 18.00 (indv.) | 9           | \$ 2.00 indv.    |
| Youth Baseball (9-12) | \$ 23.00 (indv.) | 12          | \$ 1.92 indv.    |
| Pony League (13-14)   | \$ 31.00 (indv.) | 15          | \$ 2.07 indv.    |
| Colt League (15-16)   | \$ 30.00 (indv.) | 15          | \$ 2.00 indv.    |
| Coaches Pitch (7-8)   | \$ 19.00 (indv.) | 11          | \$ 1.73 indv.    |
| Youth Basktbll (9-12) | \$ 20.00 (indv.) | 10          | \$ 2.00 indv.    |

Again, the number of games made available for the fee and the cost per game ratio helps to keep comparison costs in perspective. In many cases the cost per individual is equal to or exceeds the cost per team, however, youth leagues were generally set up on an individual pay basis while adult leagues function more on a team cost basis.

#### TOURNAMENTS

The most common type of tournament sponsored by a recreation center was softball with tennis next and basketball and racquetball following. Again, it would appear that tournaments are either a function of available space or patron interest.

Table 9.--Percent offering Tournament for the above sports

| Tournament  | % Offering Tourney |
|-------------|--------------------|
| Tennis      | 50%                |
| Softball    | 72%                |
| Basketball  | 33%                |
| Racquetball | 6%                 |

It is interesting to note the great difference between the popularity of basketball leagues and basketball tournaments. However, housed within many of the leagues were self-contained tournaments and not seperately funded competitive events. The cost for tournament play is described in the next table.

Table 10.--Fee per resident, number of games for fee and cost per game per individual or team for the above provided tournaments

| Tournament  | Resident       | # of Games | Cost per Game |
|-------------|----------------|------------|---------------|
| Tennis      | \$ 7.00 indv.  | 2          | \$ 3.50 indv. |
| Softball    | \$120.00 team  | 3          | \$40.00 team  |
| Basketball  | \$ 85.00 team  | 3          | \$29.00 team  |
| Racquetball | \$ 16.00 indv. | 3          | \$ 5.33 indv. |

The number of guaranteed games during the tournament is an important consideration when a team or individual pays a tournament fee. These averages and cost per game ratio were fairly consistent across the State with a minor difference found between the softball and basketball tournaments.

#### PARTICIPATION RATES

One last area of interest regarding the fees and charges is the question of where does the money generated from these fees and charges go. The majority return to the general fund after passing through the recreation center.

Table 11.--Where fees return to after participant fee payment  
 (\*Does not round to 100% due to multiple option response  
 potential)  
 (Usually parent organization of sport)

|                    |      |  |
|--------------------|------|--|
| =====              |      |  |
| General Fund       | 67%  |  |
| Enterprise Account | 28%  |  |
| Other              | 17%* |  |

A growing percent, however, are establishing either enterprize accounts or parent organizations to which the money returns if the sport activity is profitable. However, if the program is conducted at a loss then the money generally goes to the general fund and tax dollars pay the difference.

The most common participation pattern at a recreation center is open play with tournaments being the least participated in. However, there is a great difference in the effort necessary to participate under these two different options.

Table 12.--Average number of patrons served by recreation center per year by recreation pattern and percent that the pattern represents of the total

| Recreation<br>Pattern | # of<br>Patrons | % of Total |
|-----------------------|-----------------|------------|
| =====                 |                 |            |
| Open Play             | 40,781          | 73         |
| Lessons               | 7,953           | 14         |
| Leagues               | 5,245           | 9          |
| Tournaments           | 2,045           | 4          |
| TOTAL                 | 56,024          | 100 %      |

It would appear that about three fourths of the recreation center efforts are in the open play area. The average recreation center provides for about 56,000 participants, however, figures are not always kept at all centers.

These figures represent averages which are helpful for comparison purposes, however, not all centers will reflect these averages but careful comparison to several centers indicate that these figures are relatively accurate.

TRANSITION PLANNING IN THERAPEUTIC  
RECREATION/SPECIAL RECREATION

S. Harold Smith, Ph.D., CTRS<sup>1</sup>

Abstract.--Transition is the movement of a client/individual from one stage of the treatment process to the next. Most specifically this discussion is focused on the transition from the clinical/treatment setting to the community setting. One of the major problems in the therapeutic recreation service process is this transition between the most structured treatment environment and the "independence" of the community. Guidelines for transition planning and administration are presented.

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The well known model of therapeutic recreation service presented by Peterson and Gunn (1984, p.12) and espoused in the philosophical position statement of the National Therapeutic Recreation Society (1980) indicate that therapeutic recreation service is a process wherein the specialist assists the client to move from one level of service provision to the next according to the functional and developmental abilities of the client. Carter (1987) identifies this movement as transition when she states:

Transition is the passing from one condition, stage, activity, or place to another: the passage of a client from one environment or stage to another through programs designed to reinforce and/or develop skills and values inherent to independent functioning.  
(p.1)

Transition within the therapeutic recreation service system and its traditional service providers seems to have found good success as indicated by the wide number of services currently being provided to an ever increasing number of disabling conditions. Transition between the therapeutic recreation service system and other human service systems, including municipal specialized recreation services, has not been as successful in addressing this problem, Carter (1987), states:

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One of the major problems facing persons with disabilities is the lack of a continuum of services to provide effective bridges between service providers, resources, and information. The absence of appropriate transition bridges limits their ability to maximize independence and holistic functioning. (p. 1)

In reality, there are far too many situations where there is little, if any, transition bridging between the treatment setting and the community setting for the client. Far too often a client is discharged from the treatment setting into a hostile or, at least, an unsupportive community setting.

Most probably there are a variety of reasons for this lapse in the continuum of service from treatment to community setting. One of the traditional problems faced by the treatment setting is the size and diversity of its "catchment area." Simple logistics shows us that it is difficult for a regional treatment center to have the ability to know the resources of every community it services. The concept of "outreach" programs is not new, but with the current de-emphasis of funding for human service activities, the realities of implementing such programs are minimal. The concept of community treatment programs has helped in this area, but even that approach is being reevaluated as resources become more limited.

A second problem is one of responsibility and/or philosophical position. Some say it is the responsibility of the treatment facility to move into the community and identify the resources there available for their discharged patient. Others state that it is the responsibility of the community to recognize its responsibility to its "Special Populations" and take an active role in establishing both programs for "Special Populations" individuals as well as dialogue with the treatment programs that will be discharging their clientele into that community system. In addressing this issue, Robb (1980) states:

The position (defining therapeutic recreation as the application of the therapeutic recreation process) seems to be the best approach...to enhance organizational understanding, eliminate encroachment, and spell out jurisdictional boundaries. In my discussion with leaders of the parks and recreation field, I believe many would welcome this delimitation. Acceptance of this position would eliminate conflicts within the therapeutic recreation field. Persons currently working with special populations in a service capacity through recreation experiences...could identify with the general

recreation field. Perhaps this identification would provide the impetus and leadership needed for the broader field to accept the responsibility of serving all people. (p.46)

Carter and Kelly (1981) further state:

This expanded concept of therapeutic recreation that included community services has had two major consequences for disabled adults and children, consequences that are not necessarily regarded as positive. First, because most disabled and impaired individuals are now living in a non-institutional setting or are in the process of being mainstreamed back into community life, they do not need, nor do they have any desire to have, "therapy." Furthermore, they have no wish to carry the stigma of being recipients of "therapeutic" recreation services. Therefore, the broadened service delivery perspective that has maintained a "treatment" image runs counter to the desires of many disabled adults and young people to seek a "normal" range of experiences like their nondisabled peers.

Secondly, the therapeutic recreation field claims to be the primary professional group delegated the exclusive responsibility to serve disabled populations. The longer the image is promoted, the more difficult it becomes to convince the community recreation specialist that he must assume responsibility to provide recreation to all persons in his community regardless of the extent of their disabilities (pp.64, 65).

In conclusion, Kennedy, and others (1987), summarize the issue by stating:

Two philosophical points of view have emerged within the field of therapeutic recreation. One defines therapeutic recreation primarily as the provision of leisure services for those people who have some type of limitation.... The other view holds that therapeutic recreation should restrict itself to the application of purposeful interventions employing the therapeutic recreation process, and should, therefore, relinquish the provision of community recreation for special populations to community recreation personnel.

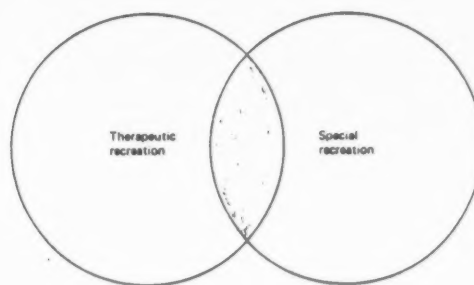
At this point, we,...take the position that a polarity does exist. We believe therapeutic recreation and

special recreation...stand as two separate entities that occasionally overlap. Overlap occurs when a therapeutic recreation program...offers the client an accompanying benefit of a recreative experience, or when a special recreation program...serves as an intervention, bringing about a desired therapeutic benefit (pp.14, 15). See Figure 1.

Figure 1-2.--Therapeutic recreation and special recreation as two separate entities that sometimes overlap.

(Kennedy, and others, 1987, p.14).

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Herein lies perhaps the single greatest challenge. For successful transition from the treatment setting to the community setting, there must be coordination and cooperation between the components of each system. Carter (1987) emphasizes this fact when she says:

The basic assumptions underlying transition are that an individualized plan exists that is coordinated through the networking process, and is relevant to the system in which the participant is expected to function. The philosophy to transition is found in the mandates of mainstreaming and the least restrictive environment. Yet recent activities in the medical arena have led to the realization that the principles applied to integration with persons who are mentally retarded or chronically physically impaired must also be utilized in the rehabilitation and integration of traumatic care clients. Ironically, the documentation and concern for cost effectiveness long-since enforced in the clinical setting is now necessitated with implementation of transition plans in the community. To function

effectively in the community, it is assumed that minimal levels of psycho-social-behavioral skills are imperative. An assumption under which we operate in the leisure field is that therapeutic recreation is a generic process applied to individual's needs to bring about growth and development supportive of holistic functioning; inherent in this process is a methodology and content believed to be in parity with the process of transition planning.

Regardless of setting, there appears to be fundamental prerequisites to facilitate the transition process: behavioral philosophy and goals communicated with a mutually inclusive language; client individualization; documented program plan or contract; formalized networking procedures; coordination and cooperation among service providers; education and training among clients, caregivers, professionals, and the community at large; assessment and follow-through or tracking; problem solving to recognize innate barriers; client skill level progression; and time to manage the time gaps among service options. These transition components are found in the generic system model describing the therapeutic recreation process of assessment, planning, implementation and evaluation. They are also found in the conceptual framework employed with community master planning and documentation models in prescribed treatment plans. An underlying assumption is our belief that with and through planned intervention leisure enhances client transitioning. Therapeutic experiences are a tool in the acquisition of independent functioning skills. Skills necessary for independent living are inherent in recreation/leisure experiences. Management of leisure is essential to successful reintegration/resocialization/re-entry. Therapeutic recreation thus becomes both a product and process within the passing or transition of a client from hospital to school-home-community-employment. We are one measurement on that yardstick of success (pp.1-3).

The operational dynamics for successful transition then involve individual, as well as shared responsibilities with and between the treatment setting and the community setting. The treatment setting has the responsibility to prepare the client to not only cope with their individual challenges, but also to gain the basic skills/behaviors necessary for successful community living. Carter (1987), addresses this point when she states:

A final underlying assumption with transition is belief in a core of behaviors as essential to appropriate independent functioning; recognizing that the natural environment hones client functioning. Therapists can neither control nor predict the factors distracting from or fostering client ability to demonstrate skills outside of the setting in which skills are acquired and practiced. Yet with a comprehensive service approach, there is more likelihood of uniformity in the acquisition and application settings. Generic skills fundamental to independent functioning are found on adaptive behavioral scales with which we are familiar. Among the most essential are: minimal levels of strength, endurance, flexibility, coordination and overall mobility and fitness, decision making, transfer and skill generalization, reality orientation, impulse control, protective assertiveness or self-defense, safety, discrimination; money and time management, travel skills, comprehension and compliance with verbal and written directions, leisure motivation and skills, self-direction in unstructured situations, communication-expression, recall, memory, adaptation and ADL skills, social interaction skills, planning and balance (p.13).

The treatment center must be aware of the community environment the client will be entering upon discharge and planning that addresses the skills and behaviors expected of the client upon entering the community setting. Indeed one of the strongest roles the therapeutic recreation program can play is that of community transition specialists with their clients. This means, however, the therapeutic recreation specialist must be willing and capable of taking the client into the community on a success adventure of both learning and education. Many programs, such as Harborview Medical Center, 1985), have found great success with this approach.

The community must also prepare itself to accept and integrate the individual upon their discharge from treatment. Historically, this has been a slow and difficult process. Currently, however, client needs and resource availability virtually mandate the community to be involved. Addressing this issue, Carter (1984) states:

Traditional barriers to transition have included: lack of finances, qualified staff, accessible facilities, and transportation, inordinate volume of red tape, forms, and protocol; lack of communication and support from referral agencies and families; unclear role delineation by service providers; lack of adapted equipment; and limited

awareness and misperceptions about client needs. These barriers are among the justifications to link agency functions. Multiple benefits are realized with comprehensive service planning; access to facilities and programs is expanded; resources are shared and costs are reduced; opportunities for mutual education and communication are developed; relevant client-based services are provided; expertise is shared; a service continuum is implemented; a centralized advocacy or political power base is formed; and staff are revitalized by the opportunity to broaden and use their expertise.

This is not to suggest that transition planning will be without difficulties. Issues to address prior to and during preparation of a community network are similar to those found when a teamwork model is utilized: Territorialism or claim on "my client or programs" must be overcome with development of comprehensive goals/objectives and formalized contracts delineating roles/relationships. Insurance restrictions and liability issues necessitate establishing and maintaining support of the primary caregivers, third party reimbursers, and agency administrators. Differing organizational patterns, budget processes, programming techniques, and policies/procedures of the participating agencies may require ongoing communication to circumvent "red tape" and prolonged delays. And, clients who typically display strong vested interests in one program must be educated to the benefits of the "whole" service system (p.14).

When both the treatment and community settings understand and accept their roles in the process, transitioning then becomes a long-term, problem-solving model with the individual clients needs and abilities becoming the central focus of the implementation process. Carter (1984) relates this cooperative venture to an approach resembling the phases of a community master plan.

The transition process is defined by a problem-solving approach resembling the phases of a community master plan. These steps or transition tasks include: 1) information gathering, 2) identification of network service providers, 3) selection/appointment of advisory team, 4) assessment of needs, 5) establish program structure/content, 6) design management plan with operating policies/procedures, 7) implement training programs, 9) market services, 10) implement services, 11) evaluate, 12) follow-up and monitor process. The model, regardless of agency focus, i.e., leisure, education, vocation, or rehabilitation is applicable to all settings/service providers...

These eleven steps constitute a master plan to use with community-wide transitioning. If effectively managed, one prerequisite assumption, coordination through a networking process, is achieved. Two other transition fundamentals are individualized client planning and behavioral outcomes appropriate to the environment or system in which the participant is expected to function independently. To realize these prerequisites, the ITP or individual transition plan is prepared. As mentioned earlier, preparation of this document resembles the central tenets of the therapeutic recreation process: assessment, planning, implementation, and evaluation. The plan itself evolves from the client documentation already in place in the school, vocational program or therapeutic recreation setting. The plan becomes an extended service contract and a referral of re-entry process spanning the time between services and preventing the client from "falling through the cracks." Key elements of the plan include: orientation, assessment, individualized program planning, implementation, evaluation, documentation, referral and re-entry (pp. 5 & 9).

Although, as pointed out by Kennedy, and others, (1987, p.5), community recreators have been slow to accept responsibility for special populations in their communities, it is an oversimplification to place the major burden of unsuccessful transition upon their shoulders. Far too often, therapeutic recreation specialists feel and have openly expressed the attitude that they have no responsibility to the client upon discharge from their service. What a short sided and damaging attitude this is, both for the client and the specialist. Therapeutic recreation is truly unique in the treatment setting because it is one of the few, if not only, service modality that addresses long-term, life-enhancing, independent leisure functioning and works very hard to expose the client to recreation and leisure experiences outside of the treatment center on a regular basis. Personally, I am not overly concerned about whether it is a therapeutic recreation specialist, a member of a special recreation program, or community recreation person, who facilitates the process. What I am concerned about is that, from my experience, far too many people are being lost from the transition bridge between treatment and community settings. We must more actively address this challenge as a service system for ethical, professional and humanistic reasons. Our treatment programs must do a better job of preparing their clients for community re-entry, and our communities must do a better job of removing barriers and obstacles and providing support to those who have the basic skills to be successful on their own, but need the experience of

independent function to hone/refine their skills in daily living.

To conclude a final quote from Marcia Carter (1984) seems appropriate and fitting:

Therapeutic recreators, regardless of setting, are advantageously situated to effect transition due to the nature of their focus. In the therapeutic experience, clients apply acquired skills in a "natural" setting like that found in community-based training or the least restrictive environment. Our intent is holistic client functioning which is fundamental to transitioning. Leisure is the only service that prevails lifelong irrespective of a client's actual physical location (school-hospital) or functioning ability. Therapeutic recreators are central agents to community-wide transitioning as we are both process and product of the individual transition plan. (p. 10)

And a model from Carol Stensrud (1978).

Figure 2.--

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THE RESCUE DOCTRINE:  
A NEW TOOT ON AN OLD HORN

Janna S. Rankin<sup>6</sup>

Abstract: The purpose of this study was to examine the historic development of the legal doctrine which holds that there is no duty to rescue, and to explore the exceptions to this doctrine which have recently been used to find liability on the part of park and recreation agencies. The underlying concern is that the many court-developed exceptions will eclipse the rule, and that agencies will find that there is a substantial new duty to rescue recreationists who find themselves in peril.

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INTRODUCTION

Little Nell is tied to the railroad track. "Help! Help!" She looks up with her big blue eyes. There you stand. The steam engine is bearing down -- just enough time to untie the ropes. Are you bound to help?

Moralists would argue that any human being should come to the aid of another person in peril if he or she could do so without substantial risk. In our society there are certain commonly accepted standards for social behavior. For example, we don't sing in crowded elevators, strip in the middle of the train station, or alienate the mail delivery person. Loosening Little Nell's bonds is the "right" thing to do.

But is it the law? If you fail to assist Little Nell can she (or her bereaved heirs) haul you into court to explain why you didn't rescue her?

No! The late torts professor, William Prosser, wrote: "... The law has persistently refused to recognize the moral obligation of common decency and common humanity, to come

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to the aid of another human being who is in danger.... The remedy in such cases is left to the 'higher law' and the 'voice of conscience,' which, in a wicked world, would seem to be singularly ineffective either to prevent the harm or to compensate the victim."<sup>7</sup>

The general rule is that there is no legal obligation; no duty to rescue. The prestigious Restatement of Torts, states: "The fact that the actor realizes or should realize that action on his part is necessary for another's aid or protection does not of itself impose upon him a duty to take such action."<sup>8</sup> The comment on this rule tells the reader that "The result of the rule has been a series of older decisions to the effect that one human being, seeing a fellow man in dire peril, is under no legal obligation to aid him, but may sit on the dock, smoke his cigar, and watch the other drown."<sup>9</sup>

Through the years, in situations noted with regularity by the press, this has caused public outrage. In 1964, Kitty Genovese was stabbed to death outside an apartment house in New York City. The New York Times reported that when she was first attacked by her assailant, she screamed: "Oh, my God, he stabbed me! Please help me! Please help me!" and that apartment residents turned on their lights, looked out, and even yelled at the attacker. He left, and then returned two more times over a period of 45 minutes before one of the thirty-eight witnesses called the police.<sup>10</sup> A recently released movie, "Accused," is based upon the true story of a young woman who was repeatedly raped on a pinball machine in a bar in New Bedford, Mass. Patrons of the

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<sup>7</sup> Prosser, Torts (4th ed.), § 56, pp. 340-341.

<sup>8</sup> The Restatement of Torts is a detailed compilation of common law principles of tort law written by leading jurists, law professors, and attorneys who are expert in the various areas of torts. It is published under the auspices of the American Law Institute.

<sup>9</sup> Restatement 2d Torts, §314, comment C.

<sup>10</sup> See, Rosenthal, Thirty-Eight Witnesses (1964)

establishment not only failed to come to her aid, but actually incited and cheered on the assailants.<sup>11</sup>

There is an historic case, Buch v. Amory Manufacturing Company,<sup>12</sup> in which an eight year old boy was injured when he caught his hand in the gearing in the back room of a textile mill. The overseer, who was in charge of the back room boys, had seen the youngster there working -- picking up bobbins and waste -- learning the job of his thirteen year old brother. The overseer recognized the danger to the youth, and testified that he directed him to leave. He also acknowledged that he knew that the child spoke no English. The question for the jury was what duty the company owed to the youngster. The court opinion states:

The duty to do no wrong is a legal duty. The duty to protect against wrong is, generally speaking,...a moral obligation only, not recognized or enforced by law.<sup>13</sup>

In the best turn-of-the-Century language, the judge went on to say:

Is a spectator liable if he sees an intelligent man...running into danger, and does not warn or forcibly restrain him?...I see my neighbor's two year old babe in dangerous proximity to the machinery of his windmill in his yard, and easily might, but do not, rescue him. I am not liable in damages to the child for his injuries, nor, if the child is killed, punishable for manslaughter by the common law...because the child and I are strangers, and I am under no legal duty to protect him.<sup>14</sup>

The rule, then, is clear. The rescue is not legally required. The underlying principle is that altruistic behavior will not be significantly altered by the presence of a statute or a threat of a lawsuit. You may leave Little Nell to whatever fate lies in store.

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<sup>11</sup> See the description of this incident in Clendenin, "Barroom Rape Shames Town of Proud Heritage," N.Y. Times, Mar. 17, 1983, at A16; and "The Tavern Rape: Cheers and No Help," Newsweek, Mar. 21, 1983, at 101.

<sup>12</sup> 69 N.H. 257, 44 A. 809 (1897).

<sup>13</sup> Buch, supra at 259, 44 A. at 811.

<sup>14</sup> Id.

## LEGISLATIVE RESPONSE

Several states have enacted legislation which is designed to either compel rescue attempts through the threat of legal sanctions, or to encourage rescue attempts by insulating the rescuers from liability for their negligence in the course of a rescue effort. The most commonly adopted state statutes require people who are involved in automobile accidents to assist (or get assistance for) others involved in the accident. A number of states have enacted legislation to encourage people to report crimes or summon emergency aid, and many have established penalties for such acts as interference with rescue attempts or the refusal to relinquish a party line when informed that it is necessary to obtain emergency services.

Many other states have attempted to address the often-repeated myth that physicians or other good folks who stop to gratuitously render assistance can be held liable. These laws, frequently called "Good Samaritan" statutes, immunize the rescuer from liability.<sup>15</sup> The language of the New Mexico statute is typical of this type of legislation:

No person who shall administer emergency care in good faith at or near the scene of an emergency...shall be held liable for any civil damages as a result of any action or omission by such person in administering said care, except for gross negligence....<sup>16</sup>

Two states, Vermont and Minnesota, have gone beyond these gentle measures to encourage people to assist others in peril. The legislators in these jurisdictions passed statutes requiring rescue attempts. That is, they abolished the common law rule of no duty, and replaced it with a general imposition on all persons to rescue. The Vermont statute provides:

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<sup>15</sup> It is interesting to note that in spite of the fact that these statutes have been in existence for quite some time, they have not succeeded in eliminating the rumors, frequently perpetuated by mass media, that physicians and health professionals cannot stop to provide emergency aid to accident victims because they are afraid of the legal implications. See, generally, 2 Louisell & Williams, Medical Malpractice, §§21.01.1 et seq. (1986).

<sup>16</sup> New Mexico Statutes (Repl. Vol. 3) §12-12-3.

(a) A person who knows that another is exposed to grave physical harm shall, to the extent that the same can be rendered without danger or peril to himself or without interference with important duties owed to others, give reasonable assistance to the exposed person unless that assistance or care is being provide by others.

(b) A person who provides reasonable assistance in compliance with subsection (a) of this section shall not be liable in civil damages unless his acts constitute gross negligence or unless he will receive or expects to receive remuneration.<sup>17</sup>

The penalty for violations of these statutes are admittedly negligible; Vermont fines people who violate the law \$100. The real question is whether the existence of the legal requirement to rescue would, in moments of hesitation, tip the balance toward the desired action. Obviously, people's behavior can be influenced only by laws that they are aware of. In writing about the effect of the Vermont legislation, one legal scholar cites a number of studies about the effects of laws on subjects' behaviors. In one experiment subjects were told that a man was drowning about ten feet from shore and that an able-bodied man nearby did nothing to help. Some subjects were then told that there was a law requiring rescue in such situations; other were told there was no legal duty to rescue. All were asked to evaluate the morality of the man's behavior. The first group of subjects judged his inaction more harshly tha did those who were told the law did not require rescued. Professor Franklin concludes that breaking the law was itself viewed as immoral, thus intensifying the negative reaction to the behavior.<sup>18</sup>

#### JUDICIAL RESPONSE

The courts, too, have expressed dismay with the common law principle which allows humans to turn their backs on people in peril. In 1921, Justice Cardozo made the famous pronouncement "Danger invites rescue. The cry

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<sup>17</sup> Vt. Stat. Ann., title 12, §519 (Supp. 1971).

<sup>18</sup> Marc A. Franklin, "Vermont Requires Rescue: A Comment", 25 Stanford Law Review 51 (1972).

of distress is the summons to relief."<sup>19</sup> In 1976, the Supreme Court of Michigan found that a young man had an affirmative duty to assist his friend. In this case Richard Farwell, who was eighteen, and David Siegrist, a sixteen-year-old, were joy riding, stopping at various restaurants and drive-ins. During the course of the evening they consumed four or five beers each. When two teenage girls walked past their car, they tried to pick them up. The girls went into a nearby restaurant where they apparently complained to those present that they were being followed by the young men. Several young patrons of the restaurant chased the boys, caught Farwell and beat him up. Siegrist gave his friend an ice pack, and they drove around until Farwell said he was tired and crawled into the back seat. He appeared to fall into a deep sleep, and around midnight Siegrist drove him to his grandparents' home where he parked the car in the driveway. Farwell died the next morning of an epidural hematoma. In an action against Siegrist, the Court of Appeals found that there was no duty to obtain medical assistance since the facts did not indicate that the defendant knew that medical attention was required. The state supreme court reversed and said:

Farwell and Siegrist were companions on a social venture. Implicit in such a common undertaking is the understanding that one will render assistance to the other when he is in peril if he can do so without endangering himself.<sup>20</sup>

One the other hand, in a 1981 case, the court found that there could be liability for assisting someone when the aid was inappropriate. In this case a fellow who was so drunk that he had been refused service in three different bars returned to his car to find that it wouldn't start. He asked Segura, the defendant, to assist him with a jump-start, and Segura complied. The intoxicated man then drove onto the highway at a high rate of speed in the wrong lane and collided with another automobile, killing the driver and a passenger. The wife of the passenger sued Segura. His attorney moved for a dismissal, saying that there was no doctrine imposing a legal duty on Segura to assist, and therefore he could not be found liable for the results of his actions. The

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<sup>19</sup> Wagner v. International Ry. Co., 232 N.Y. 176, 180, 133 N.E. 437 (1921).

<sup>20</sup> Farwell v. Keaton, 396 Mich. 281, 240 N.W.2d 217, 222 (1976).

Colorado Court of Appeals reversed, and remanded the case for trial, saying:

...by jump-starting an automobile for an obviously drunken driver, thus giving him mobility which otherwise he would not have had, ...the defendant set into motion a force involving an unreasonable risk of harm to others... [for which a jury might find him liable].<sup>21</sup>

While the courts are generally reluctant to directly reject the common law, they have increased the instances in which affirmative duties are imposed through decisions like these which expand the list of "special relationships" which justify the departure from the rule. Traditionally these relationships focused on contractual-like agreements or upon issues of reliance or control. For example, the courts have frequently found that common carriers -- buses, taxis, airplanes -- owe their passengers the duty to use reasonable care and to assist them if they are in distress.<sup>22</sup> Similarly, maritime law requires ship captains to attempt to rescue crew or passengers who have fallen overboard, and to render aid to the crew in cases of illness.

Other instances in which the courts have determined that "special relationships" existed include the following: employer-employee situations, business proprietor-customer relationships, landowner-trespasser, and beautician-client. The California courts have found special relationships in Ellis v. D'Angelo which upheld a lawsuit against parents who failed to warn a babysitter of the violent propensity of their child, and in Morgan v. County of Yuba which upheld a lawsuit against a sheriff who had promised to warn the decedent before releasing a dangerous prisoner, but failed to do so.<sup>23</sup>

Of particular importance to park and recreation professionals are the special relationships created between governmental employees and the public. Time and again the courts are repudiating the common law principle and are using the special relationship to impose liability. Public agencies have been found liable for

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<sup>21</sup> Leppke v. Segura, Colo. App., 632 P.2d 1057, 1059 (1981).

<sup>22</sup> See DeVera v. Long Beach Public Transportation Co., 180 Cal. App. 3d 782, 225 Cal. Rptr. 789 (1986).

<sup>23</sup> 116 Cal. App. 2d 310, 253 P.2d 675 (1953); 230 Cal. App. 2d 938, 41 Cal. Rptr. 508 (1964).

the failure of the fire department to respond promptly to a fire call, for the failure to aid a child whose arm was caught in the mouth of a lion, and for the failure to arrest a driver known to be intoxicated and who later causes an accident. Several legal scholars have suggested that the general rule is in the process of being consumed and supplanted by the widening ambit of the exceptions.<sup>24</sup>

Still another basis for exceptions to the "no duty" rule comes into play after an individual or an agency has started, but negligently fails to complete, a rescue. The theory behind this exception is that but for the fact that the rescue efforts had been undertaken, others would have offered aid. In a case alleging that the Coast Guard had negligently failed to rescue victims of an airplane crash, the court stated:

It is true that, while the common law imposes no duty to rescue, it does impose on the Good Samaritan the duty to act with due care once he has undertaken rescue operations. The rationale is that other would-be rescuers will rest on their oars in the expectation that effective aid is being rendered.<sup>25</sup>

This exception was the basis for the Washington Supreme Court's reversal of an avalanche warning case. The plaintiffs' cabins were in the Yodelin area of Stephens Pass. The State of Washington had been specifically warned of the extreme hazard of avalanche danger in this area, and, although it communicated this danger to the developer, it failed to give any warning to the homeowners or the general public. The expert who was involved in the avalanche analysis testified that he believed that the State would deal with the matter and would convey his warning to the residents; he further indicated that this belief caused him to refrain from taking further action to warn them himself.<sup>26</sup>

In an even more ominous development, a federal judge in Alaska recently held that the government was guilty of gross negligence in failing to rescue two passengers who were in a sight-seeing plane which crashed at the 10,000

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<sup>24</sup> See, for example, Ernest J. Weinrib, The Case for a Duty to Rescue, 90 Yale Law Journal 247 (1980).

<sup>25</sup> Lacey v. United States, 98 F.Supp. 219 (D. Miss. 1951).

<sup>26</sup> Brown v. MacPhersons, Inc., 86 Wash. 2d 293, 545 P.2d 13 (1975).

foot level on Mount Mckinley in Denali National Park. The outrage which the judge expressed in his opinion was directed at the Park Service, and appears to be based upon the testimony of local pilots who testified that had it not been for the assurances from government officials that a rescue helicopter would soon be arriving, they would have undertaken the rescue.<sup>27</sup>

The Denali case is interesting in that it ties together two of the exceptions to the rescue doctrine. First, Alaska has a Good Samaritan statute to protect rescuers from liability except where there is gross liability. The Good Samaritan statutes were designed to immunize rescuers and to encourage people to attempt to help others in need. A determination of gross negligence requires that (1) there is a pre-existing duty to rescue and (2) a breach of that duty was the cause of the injury. To establish the duty, the federal judge had to indicate that the duty was created when the Park Service discouraged others from attempting the rescue. Thus the irony -- and the slap in the face for search and rescue squads.

#### CONCLUSION

Tim Setnicka has characterized rescue as "a strong affirmation of the bonds of society."<sup>28</sup> He goes on to praise the efforts of volunteer organizations like the Mountain Rescue Association and the National Association for Search and Rescue, and again indicates that "rescue is the reiteration of social ties when volunteers perform it, in an era that alternately calls for a sense of community and bureaucratizes life."<sup>29</sup>

Yet, the trends which develop from recent case law would punish rescuers by holding them liable for starting a rescue and not succeeding, for rescuing when they shouldn't (as when the bartender "jump-started" the car for the drunk), and for failing to initiate a rescue when they should have because of some special relationship. Good Samaritan legislation may fail to protect rescuers

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<sup>27</sup> For an account of this trial see Scott Nichols, "Plane crash story misleading, incomplete," Fairbanks Daily News, August 18, 1987.

<sup>28</sup> Tim J. Setnicka, Wilderness Search and Rescue, Appalachian Mountain Club, Boston (1980).

<sup>29</sup> Id. at v.

if the court determines that the attempt doesn't come under the statutory protection.

There is a delicate balance between the desire to encourage potential rescuers to go to the aid of people in danger, and the desire to punish rescuers who have tried to help but have failed. Perhaps these tensions are inevitable in a society which places a great deal of emphasis on the right of each individual to be left alone, on the right of people to make their own decisions about whether or not they want to become involved in "other people's business", and in the value of human life.

Perhaps the best guidance which a resource manager or park administrator could receive would come from the opinion of a 1921 case in which a man fell from a slowly moving train onto a trestle. When a rescuer went to help find the victim he, too, fell through a hole in the railway bridge. In holding the railroad company liable for the injuries of the rescuer, Justice Cardozo wrote:

Danger invites rescue. The cry of distress is the summons to relief. The law does not ignore the reactions of the mind in tracing conduct to its consequences. It recognizes them as normal.... The risk of rescue, if only it be not wanton, is born of the occasion. The emergency begets the man.<sup>30</sup>

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<sup>30</sup> Wagner v. International Railway, 232 N.Y. 176, 133 N.E. 437 (1921).

## UTAH'S COMMUNITY EDUCATION LONG-RANGE PLANNING PROJECT

Burton Olsen & Larry Horyna<sup>1</sup>

**Abstract.**--In 1987 the National Community Education Association , National Center for Community Education, the Mott Foundation Endowment Task Force, and the University of Virginia conveyed many community educators throughout the country to refine a document to develop a list of characteristics of community education. From a total of 204 surveys sent out on a national level, 174 surveys were returned. As a result of this national survey and information received, interest was kindled to try and analyze data on a state level for analysis and comparison.

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### INTRODUCTION

Surveys were sent out to 118 community education practitioners and "significant others", 96 were received. Listed below is a breakdown of respondents:

Practitioners:

|    |                                              |
|----|----------------------------------------------|
| 14 | Full-time district director/coordinator      |
| 20 | Part-time district director/coordinator      |
| 15 | Full-time building level coordinator/manager |
| 8  | Part-time building level coordinator/manager |
| 6  | other practitioners                          |
| 37 | "Significant others:                         |
| 96 | Total                                        |

Total surveys received represented an 81.4 % return.

The survey was divided into two different parts, "general statements" and "state indicators", indicators believed to be important to state level development in community education.

### GENERAL STATEMENTS

Some of the statements analyzed have strong significance to our state development. By using a "Lickert scale" of 1 to 5, respondents were asked to evaluate 17 statements. the top three statements, along with the "mean" by respondents were:

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<sup>1</sup>Associate Professor of Recreation Management & Youth Leadership at Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah; and Coordinator of Project Assistance Services Section, Utah State Office of Education, Salt Lake City, Utah.

1. Funding for community education should be direct categorical funding from the state legislative body. (Mean 3.726)
2. The state office of education should assume the leadership role for promotion of community education. (Mean 3.663)
3. The state association should assume the leadership role for promotion of community education. (Mean 3.591)

From the opposite end of the statements our survey identified the 3 least agreeable statements. They were:

15. Institutions of higher education should assume the leadership role for promotion of community education. (Mean 2.632)
16. The type (language or categories) of funding for community education is adequate at this time. (Mean 2.053)
17. The level (amount of dollars) of funding for community education is adequate at this time. (Mean 1.883)

In-other-words, people in community education "agree" that the main source of funding for community education should be from our state government. And because the level of funding for community education is most "inadequate" at this time. The State Office of Education should "continue" to assume the leadership role in promoting community education. And our State Association should be directly involved in the leadership of promoting community education. However, our respondents recommend institutions of higher education should not assume leadership roles for promoting community education.

Since our Association is involved in community education, and the State Office of education is allowing some involvement of their staff to promote community education, it seems that our biggest efforts should be to push for direct community education financial assistance from our state dollars.

## STATE INDICATORS

This section identifies five distinct areas related to indicators believed to be important to state level development in community education. They are: **leadership** (People with a vision of community education who have the capability of motivating others in the development of community education), **networking** (The intentional collaboration of state community education leaders for the purpose of developing and advancing needed and useful agendas related to community education development), **legislation and funding** (Legislation and funding in support of community education at the local and state levels), training and technical assistance (Provision of educational opportunities for individuals and groups to enhance community education skills development and/or application of skills), and **community education identity and support** (Development of a strong community education presence, identified by the visibility at state and local levels).

The top statement in each section by order of importance according to our surveyors were:

Acknowledged spokes-persons for and advocates of community education on the state and local levels. (Mean 2.804 )

Planned collaborative projects/events among state community educators. (Mean 3.101)

Legislation and/or funding to assist local districts to provide comprehensive community education programs and services. (Mean 2.348)

In-service opportunities for community educators. (Mean 3.056)

Familiarity with and understanding of community education by policy makers, school personnel, the private sector, and the public. (Mean 3.33)

However, all five areas were identified as really no being done. From the above data received from our state survey the following suggestions for our people in community education and our State Association could then be:

1. Organize efforts towards formal funding for community education.
2. Formalize our leaders in promoting community education.
3. More formally plan and collaborate different projects and events on community education at different levels.
4. Continue to have in-service opportunities at various levels for our people.
5. Further educate our policy makers, school personnel, the private sector, and the public about community education.

## ANALYSIS OF UTAH STATE LAW 11-2-7, THE "RECREATION MILL LEVY"

Benjamin Allen & Burton Olsen<sup>1</sup>

Abstract.--The purpose of this study was to determine if and to what extent the governing bodies of cities, towns, counties, or school districts are using the "Recreation mill levy" provided by Utah state law #11-2-7 to appropriate monies for recreation purposes.

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### INTRODUCTION

The recreation mill levy is an integral part of recreation funding in Utah school districts. Very little was written about the recreation levy, and many administrators knew little about this funding source. As recreation budgets become limited, every funding source needs to be examined to see if it is effective in fulfilling the expected purpose of providing adequate funds. This study attempts to analyze to some degree the whole ambit of the recreation mill levy.

### SUMMARY OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of related literature developed several main points. To begin with, recreation opportunities and expenditures have increased dramatically in the last half century, showing how important recreation has become in our lifestyle. This presents the problem of managing our recreation resources efficiently. At present, administrative efforts have been unable to provide adequate funding. Many state and local governments have had to cut back on recreation programs.

The laws of this nation have given state and local governments the responsibility to provide for the welfare of its citizens. Recreation is one of the necessities that are part of these responsibilities. Therefore, laws have been implemented to help local governments provide funding for recreation. These laws are enabling legislation which include the recreation mill levy law that allows local governments the right to tax citizens in order to appropriate monies for recreation.

The recreation mill levy has been praised as a good source of funding for a couple of reasons. Experts say it provides the recreation budget with a stable base and lets the public see where the monies are being spent. The people of America are trying to tell us they want more recreation, and since the present funding sources are not keeping up with the demand, other sources need to be explored.

### PURPOSE

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The purpose of this study was to determine if and to what extent the governing bodies of cities, towns, counties, or school districts are utilizing the "recreation mill levy" provided by Utah state law #11-2-7 to appropriate monies for recreation purposes. This main problem was further divided into the following three subproblems.

1. To determine, historically, the process of mill levies in general.
2. To find out, for the past and the present, how much money has been collected by the recreation mill levy, 11-2-7, and to determine what percentage this is of Utah's education and state recreation budgets.
3. To determine the attitudes of city, town, county, and school district officials on the subject of the recreation mill levy.

## PROCEDURES

This study used both historical and descriptive methods of research to answer the questions arising from the problem statement. Historical research was done by searching through historical documents, talking with past and present administrators, and visiting the State Office of Education, the Utah State Tax Commission, the State Capitol, and various other state and local offices.

The descriptive information acquired for this study came from current state and local records and from the survey instrument. Used as measurement of the problem, the survey instrument was developed by key recreation professionals which included opinions from recreation professors and municipal recreation administrators. A pilot study was first sent out to five municipal administrators. Any insights or questions they had which would improve the survey were included.

After the pilot study, the survey was sent to all forty school districts, to all twenty-nine counties, and to the forty-five selected towns and cities. A similar survey was also sent to the president or executive director of each state's Park and Recreation Association. This brought the number of all surveys sent to a total of 164. Two follow-up surveys were sent to those not returning their completed survey. With each survey, a cover letter was also sent explaining why this study was being done.

The survey sent to each of the entities in Utah consisted of five general information questions followed by six attitudinal type questions. The survey sent to each state had four general information questions and one attitudinal question. Many of the questions were the same or similar in both surveys.

A total of 76%, or 38 of the 50 national surveys were returned. A higher return of 83.333%, or 95 of the 114 Utah surveys were returned. All the data obtained from these surveys were entered in the Apple Macintosh computer on the StatView 512+ statistics program for descriptive statistical analysis. Tables of informative statistics were then developed to organize the data into useful information.

## FINDINGS

After analysis of the data obtained by the historical and descriptive methods, the following information was found:

### Subproblem 1

The first three findings are related to the first subproblem, "to determine, historically, the process of mill levies in general."

1. In Utah, the recreation mill levy was introduced in 1923. Only five school districts used the levy in that first year.
2. From 1949 to 1961 there was a .75 mill limitation which no entity in Utah could exceed. Since 1961 there has been no ceiling or limitation to this mill now referred to as a tax rate.
3. In the 1970's and again now in 1988 there have been questions directed to Utah state officials regarding proper spending of recreation mill levy monies.

### Subproblem 2

The next five findings are related to the second subproblem, "to find out, for the past and the present, how much money has been collected by the recreation mill levy, 11-2-7, and to determine what percentage this is of Utah's education and state recreation budgets."

1. The funds acquired from the recreation mill levy for school districts in Utah have grown steadily, increasing nearly 200% every five years since 1963.
2. Recreation mill levy monies have increased at a faster pace than either state education spending or state parks and recreation spending, outdistancing education by 67.9% in five years and state recreation spending by 47.5% in four years.
3. Other states in America use the recreation mill levy most with their counties and special districts. In Utah, the recreation mill levy has evolved into a unique funding source for school districts, where 77.5% of all districts use the levy.
4. Nationally, only 57.895% of the states use a recreation mill levy. However, of those which do use the levy, many use it to a much greater extent than the state of Utah.
5. For 1987 only one city and four special districts in Utah were using the recreation mill levy.

### Subproblem 3

The last ten findings are from the third subproblem, "to determine the attitudes of city, town, county, and school district officials on the subject of the recreation mill levy."

1. Nationally, 67.568% of those surveyed strongly agreed or agreed that the recreation mill levy should be more widely used in states.
2. Nationally, 75.000% of those surveyed strongly agreed or agreed that the recreation mill levy provided the budget with a stable base.
3. Nationally, 58.334% of those surveyed strongly agreed or agreed that the recreation mill levy lets the public see exactly where their monies are being spent.
4. Nationally, 16.667% of those surveyed strongly agreed or agreed that the recreation mill levy is a funding source that is too easily abused.
5. The Utah state survey indicated that 42.222% of those surveyed strongly agreed or agreed that the reason they didn't use the recreation mill levy was that they were not informed about it.
6. The Utah state survey indicated that 56.097% of those surveyed strongly agreed or agreed that the reason they didn't use the recreation mill levy was because officials don't want to change.

7. The Utah state survey indicated that 68.889% of those surveyed strongly agreed or agreed that the reason they didn't use the recreation mill levy was because they don't want to increase taxes or make the taxpayers think there is an increase.

8. In Utah, 75.000% of those surveyed strongly agreed or agreed that they got more money from the recreation levy than if they used the general fund allocations.

9. In Utah, 84.000% of those surveyed strongly agreed or agreed that the recreation levy gives the recreation budget a stable base.

10. In Utah, 22.727% of those surveyed strongly agreed or agreed that they can increase the amount easily.

11. The Utah survey indicated that 86.905% of those surveyed strongly agreed or agreed that the recreation mill levy is a good law to have.

#### Conclusions

The following conclusions are based on the findings detailed in Chapter 4 and summarized in Chapter 5.

#### Subproblem 1

The first two conclusions are related to the first subproblem.

1. The recreation mill levy was not used extensively until the 1960's. It was in this era when the ceiling or tax limitation was lifted. This was also the time when the Mott Foundation and other groups began to push for increased funding and more programs for recreation. Since this time there has been a large, steady increase in monies obtained by the recreation mill levy.

2. A big issue facing the recreation mill levy is deciding on the proper spending of these monies. Funds raised by the recreation mill levy have very liberal guidelines as to how they should be spent.

#### Subproblem 2

The next two conclusions are related to the second subproblem.

1. Recreation mill levy monies have increased at a faster pace than other funding sources. This indicates that school districts, which use the levy the most in Utah, have found this source of funding as a viable, effective way to fund recreation.

2. In Utah, school districts are the predominant user of the recreation mill levy, whereas other states use the levy much more in cities, counties, and special service districts.

#### Subproblem 3

The last four conclusions are related to the third subproblem.

1. Both national and Utah recreation administrators thought the most important attribute of the recreation mill levy was that it provided the budget with a stable base.

2. Other responses from the national recreation administrators included responses that the levy should be more widely used in states. They said the levy is good because it lets the public see exactly where monies are being spent. They also said nationally that the levy was not easily abused.

3. The three main reasons why other entities in Utah don't use the recreation mill levy are that many officials don't know about the law, when they do find out they don't want to change, and they don't want to increase taxes or make the taxpayers think there is an increase.

4. The two main reasons why Utah administrators liked the recreation mill levy are that the levy provided their budgets with more money than they felt they could get from the general fund allocations, and they felt the levy gave their budget a stable base. They did not feel, however, that it was easy to increase the amount of dollars obtained from the recreation mill levy.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on all findings and conclusions, these recommendations are intended to further the purposes of the study of the recreation mill levy. Some of these recommendations will be aimed at helping future studies; other recommendations will hopefully help entities which now use the levy or intend to use it in the future.

1. It is recommended that further studies be conducted to see if some type of review board should be established to periodically evaluate spending practices of entities using the levy. This would prevent misuse of recreation mill levy monies and would eliminate some of the disagreements over what these monies should be spent for.

2. Other states should be examined to find out why some states don't have entities that abuse the recreation mill levy. The principles found in other states should be implemented here in Utah.

3. In order to preserve the recreation mill levy's use for all, it is important that those entities which use the levy or which look forward to using it are educated about the intent of the enabling legislation. The solutions to the three problems of why more entities don't use the levy are also found in educating administrators as well as the general public about how the levy really works. This could give officials the needed knowledge and incentive to want to change.

4. It is recommended that this study, a summary, or something similar be given to each entity in the state of Utah that currently has a recreation program to better educate administrators on the subject of the recreation mill levy. (Many administrators surveyed had no knowledge of such a law as the recreation mill levy.)

5. Instead of just finding out about administrator's attitudes, as in this study, it would be interesting to see what the general public thinks about supporting a special recreation levy. That way it could be determined if administrator's concerns about not using the levy are justified.

6. Since so many entities are always searching for new ways to fund recreation, it is recommended that a program be started where a few city or county recreation funds are switched from general funds to the use of the recreation mill levy on a trial basis. Since it has provided school districts with more money and a more stable base, it may benefit other entities likewise.

7. It would also be interesting to find out if school districts which don't use the recreation mill levy spend as much for recreation as school districts that set up this type of special levy.

## CONCLUDING STATEMENT

The issues behind the recreation mill levy are very controversial. Many people don't even know about the levy. Those who do know about it and use the levy are being accused of spending monies obtained thereby inappropriately. One school district was reported as having paid off its bonded debt with recreation mill levy funds.

Since there has been such widespread use of the recreation mill levy by school districts in Utah, the mill levy must be a good form of funding unless these districts are just using the levy as a slush fund. If the advantages of using the recreation levy are real, then more entities in Utah and across America should use it. If the levy is just being used as a slush fund by the school districts, that explains why so many districts are using it. If this is the case, there should be restrictions placed on this type of funding, and other entities should look elsewhere for good funding sources.

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